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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 22, 1904.

The Week.

"We are going to make the dirt fly on the Isthmus." That was the triumphant word which Mr. Roosevelt sent to the protesting Yale professors, after his unhappy *coup* in Panama. Nearly a year has passed, and not even the plans for the canal are yet fixed, so obstinately do the Culebra ridge and the Chagres River refuse to get out of the way at the bidding of impetuosity! The chief engineer of the Commission, Mr. Wallace, has made a report to Congress in which he discusses the difficulties in a very open-minded way. It is evident that he favors a cut at sea-level. Indeed, expert opinion and Congressional preference seem now to be strongly leaning that way. Admiral Walker, however, stands by the old plans, largely on the score of economy and saving of time. Mr. Wallace speaks quietly of fifteen or twenty years' work to be done. This leaves the enthusiastic dirt-flying of a year ago looking slightly premature. The watcher on the peak in Darien will have to wait long before seeing the stately ships go by.

In connection with the Panama Canal, the President is already beset by Congressmen and others to make sure that all contracts go to Americans. It is true, the law requires him to get the work done as well and cheaply as possible, but it is argued that the intent could never have been to compel high-born Americans to compete with low-down foreigners. Sharp complaint is made that lumber from Puget Sound has been carried to the Isthmus in German bottoms, though American ship-owners stood ready to undertake the job at a higher price. Admiral Walker shows himself singularly obtuse on this point. He says that the Commission is going to get all the lumber and other material carried as cheap as possible. Bids will be invited, and if the foreigner is below the American, the former will get the contract. There seems to be something wrong about this. It may possibly be defended on business principles, but the canal is a great national work, and it is well known that the hearts of patriots will not beat warmly for their native land unless an appropriation or a "rake-off" apply the needed stimulus to the cardiac muscles.

President Roosevelt has instructed Mr. Willcox, the recently appointed postmaster of New York, to eliminate politics from the service here; and he has also

commendably dismissed J. C. Keller, president of the National Association of Letter Carriers, and Frank H. Cunningham, president of the National Association of Rural Free Delivery Carriers. Their cases were very clear. They had seen the pension lobbyists, the ship-subsidy lobbyists, the river-and-harbor lobbyists, and a dozen others busily pushing their schemes through Congress; and they wanted for the carriers a chunk of the pork. Accordingly, they absented themselves from their duties—for which they were paid by the Government—and spent considerable time in lobbying for an increase of carriers' pay. Their conduct was not only indecent in itself, but in flat violation of President Roosevelt's order prohibiting individual or organized attempts of Government employees to influence legislation. The order itself was obviously in the spirit of civil-service reform. The disregard of it by these two men was particularly flagrant. In the last election the two organizations of carriers frankly adopted the methods of the highwayman: "Money for us, or your political life." Against this outrage the President's action has been emphatic, swift, and salutary.

For so ardent a lauder of high prices as Secretary Shaw recently showed himself, his conversion is lightning-like. Here he is calling upon American farmers to sell their wheat "cheap enough to permit the American miller to undersell." Where is the Home Market Club? What has become of that Midas touch, "selling to ourselves"? Indeed, the whole professed theory of protection is topsy-turvy in Mr. Shaw's statement respecting the drawback on Canadian wheat. The price of American hard wheat, he says, is "about 16 cents above that of Canada." But does he rejoice in that fact? Does he point to it as a triumphant proof that the agricultural schedules of the Dingley tariff, inserted with such broad winks to "fool the farmer," are at last beginning to be effective? No; the Secretary is as anxious and troubled as any free-trader about our foreign market. We must keep that at all hazards. Yet our high prices are killing it. Exports of flour are off one-half. Foreign merchants are telegraphing to American millers, "Your prices are out of sight." Hence the Secretary's incessant labors to lower the price of wheat. But on one point he is unyielding. Flour must not be cheap for the American consumer. We may have special laws and orders, and strain every nerve to give the English artisan cheap bread; we must do our best to feed the German and French laborer at small cost, but no American shall be robbed of the blessing of high prices for the

necessaries of life. His right to pay double is inalienable.

It is the exception for Reed Smoot's name to be mentioned in the evidence which concerns his right to a seat in the Senate. Nevertheless, the testimony now being taken is vital to the whole proceeding. Mr. Smoot as an individual has nothing to do with the case. If the Senate is willing to have any Mormon apostle in its membership, he is the one, perhaps, to whom least objection would be made. He can be excluded only on the theory that the Church control is such that no one of its officers could be free from the possibility of its dictation even in his vote as a United States Senator. Last year, President Smith testified that if Mr. Smoot had become a candidate for Senator without asking permission, he would have been considered "out of harmony with his quorum"—an expression which does not mean much to a Gentile. He declared, however, that this consent amounted to no more than it would in any business house, where the cashier would naturally speak to the president before entering on a political campaign outside. We are now getting more light on the workings of the Church in politics. In Idaho, for instance, the Republican candidate for Governor, put up by the Mormons, ran ahead of Roosevelt in the Mormon counties and behind him in the Gentile counties. Many other cases could probably be discovered in the country where race or religious prejudice similarly helped one candidate and hurt another on the same ticket. A very wide net has been thrown out by the committee. It is catching no end of interesting and damaging details about Mormonism, but we are still far from a conclusive demonstration of the facts that would justify Smoot's unseating.

Upon the ear of a Senate fearful lest its right to go to war be curtailed, the appeal of the great arbitration meeting held in this city on Friday night should fall reassuringly. Any Government bent on fighting can do so, treaties or no treaties. One of the barbarities of war is the repudiation of treaties. Hence, even if a nation bound itself to arbitrate certain questions, it could, if it chose in the madness of the war passion, be false to its own pledges and add duplicity to misery. War being essentially a savage thing, no civilized restraints can hold back people determined to plunge into it. The Senate, therefore, need not be afraid of blinding the country too securely to civilization. All that is asked of it is to give the peace habit a preference. After all, it can do no lasting harm to permit the nations to settle a

few controversies in the same way that individuals do everywhere—by referring them to impartial judges. The arbitration of war, as we see it just now in the struggle between Japan and Russia, is not so speedy, certain, or glorious as to make the Hague Tribunal appear contemptible.

The members of the House of Representatives and of its Judiciary Committee differ on the question whether Judge Swayne's conduct of receiverships, treatment of litigants, and alleged residence in Delaware justified his impeachment, but they agree unanimously that his charge of \$10 a day for expenses, when he really spent only four or five, constituted a "high misdemeanor." This is undoubtedly good law, but it is a little surprising that the only unanimous condemnation should be of a practice that is so often regarded as a venial offence in various branches of the Government service. Mr. Lacey of Iowa asked, during the debate, what was the custom of other Federal Judges as to the \$10 a day charge for expenses, and suggested that the House needed to have "a job lot of impeachments covering the whole district or circuit." A year ago, it will be remembered, when the special session merged into the regular session without interval, the Appropriations Committee reported in favor of paying \$145,000 for mileage to members who had never left Washington at all. It was seriously asserted on the floor that the 20 cents per mile allowed by the Constitution was not intended to bear any actual relation to travelling expenses, but was intended simply as additional compensation. The House finally decided not to take the money, but many members were unconvinced. The Congressman draws his "stationery allowance" and clerk's salary, whether he uses them for the specified purpose or not. In the departments it is almost a general rule that when a maximum is fixed for any privilege, this maximum comes gradually to be regarded as the regular thing. The allowance for sick leave for not more than two weeks in the year becomes a regular supplementary vacation. If Government officers in general are interested enough to reflect on Judge Swayne's case, they have many chances to put their conclusions into practice.

The Philippine Improvement bill goes back to the House a decidedly safer measure than when it started. It will not be possible now for a railroad company to mortgage away its property and leave the Government in the lurch, nor to secure the guarantee of returns on the whole line when only a part is completed. Moreover, the guarantee itself is cut down from 5 to 4 per cent. Some of these are points which the Democrats urged in the House, but, as the

measure was brought in under a special rule which forbade amendment, there was no chance there for alteration of the clauses objected to. It ought to have as full and fair a discussion now on its return as it has had in the Senate. The vote on Mr. Bailey's amendment is one of those things which will doubtless be regarded as a straw showing which way the wind sets. Ten Republicans, all Western men except Senator Knox, voted with the Democrats to put the control of railroad rates in the hands of the Philippine Commission. Three more Republican votes would have carried the amendment.

The two hundred American clergymen, physicians, and merchants resident in China who have petitioned Secretary Hay on behalf of the admission of Chinese students and men of wealth and position to this country, would see their appeal granted at once were its justice the sole determining factor. To Filipinos, Japanese, Koreans, Porto Ricans, natives of India or the South Sea Islands our institutions of learning stand wide open. But to Chinese students the great educational opportunities are practically closed by the Exclusion act because of a senseless prejudice. Everybody admits that the Japanese who have been trained in this country have been important factors in bringing about the wonderful political and material progress of that country. It is universally believed, too, that a similar development of the Chinese Empire is most desirable from every point of view. Yet the United States, the country which would profit most by it, takes the untenable position of excluding all who might help to bring it about. Obviously, this is giving other nations an opportunity to make their influence felt indirectly, which is most heartily welcome.

"When once they get the old man of the sea—Protection—on their back, he is impossible to shake off." This sentence from Lord Rosebery's recent speech at Glasgow clearly refers to the efforts of this country to escape from the trammels of the protective tariff. The more we struggle, the more tightly we are enmeshed. The difficulty in the way of reform is entrenched corruption; for, as Lord Rosebery pointed out, "protection taints every source of public life." The protected interests, which draw an incalculable revenue from class legislation, can make and unmake every public officer, from poundmaster to President. They can and do dictate to Senators and Representatives their speeches, their policies, their votes. Do Senators Aldrich and Hale fear the stand-patters for naught? Is it love of his native land, or is it tenderness towards the men who are "financing" the Republican party, which arrays Speaker Cannon against

tariff reform? Why do the high protectionists tell the President that in urging amendment of the Dingley law he is beating his head against a stone wall? These questions answer themselves. The people want tariff reform. The replies received from the *Evening Post's* inquiry of the first thousand men in 'Who's Who in America' are ten to one in favor of revision. But against this popular demand stand the inordinate greed of the protected monopolies and an inexhaustible war chest.

The Southern press has been quick to see that Senator Platt's connection with the proposal to cut down the South's representation in Congress is harmful to the project. The *Charleston News and Courier* is willing to discuss Congressman Burton's bill, but not Mr. Platt's, who, it says, "has never learned to play but one game—the game of politics—and he has always played it for profit and not upon principle." It is quite certain that Congress will realize that this is a matter in which the guidance of peanut politicians should not be accepted. There is relief in the South that the Republicans give no sign of earnestly pushing any measure, for, it was thought that Roosevelt's landslide would encourage them to attempt something pretty radical. It is obvious enough that the reduction of representation is really dreaded, and would be received as a severe punishment. All the talk about the South's welcoming it as an acquiescence in the disfranchisement of the negro appears to be in the nature of a bluff. The *New Orleans Times-Democrat* beseeches the South to keep quiet. The Southern members must not be "drawn into debate on this subject," for a heated discussion would have the effect of stirring up the issue and—note the admission—"strengthening the hands of the enemy." All of which looks very little like a calm acceptance of reduced representation.

Republicans of New York can now say with conviction, as the members of the Directory said after their interview with Napoleon, "We have a master." Mr. Odell has served notice on them that he holds their party in the hollow of his hand. His solemn pretence of "consulting" his creatures up the State on the Senatorial question would not deceive a child in arms. Odell exhibits the Republican organization as his personal property. It is as his own horse or ass, and he will ride it or flog it as it pleases him. His appointment of "Charlie" Murray to be judge of the Court of Claims, so as to get him conveniently out of the County Chairmanship, and his naming of the notorious Halpin for the vacancy, combined with his determination to oust and humiliate Mr. Depew are demonstrating that the new boss believes

in the policy of thorough—thorough autocracy and thorough unscrupulousness. Senator Depew ought to regard it as a certificate of character that Odell is against his reelection. Indeed, if the junior Senator is now to quit the scene, he may be regarded as happy in the opportunity of his political death. A machine capable of taking a Black at the dictation of an Odell has no real honors to bestow upon any man.

The public memory is short, but it cannot yet have forgotten Black's term as Governor. The tone of it was low throughout. He began with an ignorant and brutal attack upon the civil-service laws. Under him the canal scandals created their stench. So bad was the impression made by his Administration that the machine dared not renominate him, and Roosevelt, with all his Cuban laurels green upon him, had to be called in to save the day. Even he narrowly escaped defeat; and the worst drag upon his canvass was the record of Gov. Black. That this man should now suddenly appear as the Senator whom the Republicans of New York are panting to elect, is one of the most ghastly jokes which a boss ever perpetrated. The whole situation is as critical as shameful for the Republican party of the Empire State. It sees itself treated like a chattel. A man about to retire from the Governorship in unexampled odium coolly proposes to go on ruling the party with a rod of iron. Against this degradation there will be protest if there is a spark of manhood left.

Eleven Massachusetts cities voted in the first half of December on the Luce Direct Primary law. Nine which had tried it once rejected it for future elections. One, which had refused to adopt it in the first place, took the same action again, and but one of those which had tried the law voted to continue it in operation. Reckoning in Quincy, which acted favorably, there were more than twice as many voters against the law as for it. This is a curious result to be reported only a month after an election in which primary reform made great advances all through the Western States. The feature of the law which caused its unpopularity seems to be its requirement that the voter, before sharing in the primary, declare whether he is a Republican or a Democrat. It is considered a violation of the principle of secrecy in voting, which of course it is, in a sense, though under the old system a voter just as plainly made known his allegiance when he attended a caucus. The provisions designed to prevent unscrupulous voters of one party from packing the other's caucus have been the weak points of every primary law yet drawn. The *Boston Transcript* compares the Luce law unfavorably in

this respect with the statute just adopted by referendum in Wisconsin, which does not make the voter declare his party preference, but permits him to vote for candidates of only one party. Mr. Luce himself says that only a long trial can be expected to secure the results for which his bill was framed; but the Massachusetts cities are impatient.

"We should always remember with satisfaction that peace reigns in six-sevenths of the industrial world," wrote Andrew Carnegie in the address read before the Civic Federation on Thursday night. The other seventh is "exposed to successive and disastrous outbursts of war." That the word "war" is not purely metaphorical in this use is brought out by a compilation which Mr. Slason Thompson has prepared for the *Outlook* on the statistics of violence for two and a half years of strikes in this country. Mr. Thompson collected his data through the coöperation of trustworthy newspaper men in sixteen cities who examined the files of leading papers for reports of all strikes. Where the newspaper report used the word "several" the figure 2 was entered; where it said "many," 3 were added. As the table stands, though incomplete, it shows that deaths from violence incident to strikes were four-fifths as many as in the two days' fighting at El Caney and San Juan, while the injuries were actually one-third more numerous. There were in all 180 deaths, 1,651 injuries, and 5,533 arrests. The largest number of deaths was in Colorado, Illinois, and Pennsylvania; but New York is among the first three States in the number of injuries and of arrests, the figures from January 1, 1902, to June 30, 1904, being 4 killed, 123 injured, and 1,010 arrested. No exact figures are available as to the number of striking workmen in this period, in which is included the building strike, with perhaps 100,000 men concerned, and the clothing strike with 30,000. A further analysis establishes the fact, which hardly needs statistical proof, that the deaths and injuries are chiefly inflicted on non-union men, while most of the arrests are of union strikers. Of the 180 killed, 116 were non-union men, 51 union strikers, and 13 officers. Of the 1,651 injured, 1,366 were non-union men, 151 union strikers, and 134 officers. On the other hand, of the 5,533 arrests 5,159, or nearly fourteen-fifteenths, were of union men. If we assume these proportions to hold good for New York State, about one striker out of every two hundred must have got himself arrested, while for about every 1,700 men on strike a non-union man was injured.

Mr. August Belmont, as a large employer of labor, was obviously on the eligible list for the presidency of the National Civic Federation. His election to

succeed the late Mark Hanna is, however, something of a surprise. He may perhaps signalize his administration by reducing the amount of rather casual talk that has generally marked the proceedings. In fact, the danger of an organization that has merely advisory functions is of degenerating into an amiable circumlocution office. We do not underestimate the value of frank conference between employers, labor leaders, and prominent professional men; only good can come of it. Mr. Easley very justly pointed out on Thursday night that the problem of successful employment was largely one of the amenities of life. He instanced the happy condition of agricultural and domestic service—this over-hopefully, perhaps—in comparison with the more impersonal service of the mills and mines. Yet of incivility there was little in the proceedings. Mr. Mitchell's admission that the lockout is equally justifiable with the strike was candid and welcome; but the only thing that really struck fire was President Elliot's demand for "industrial peace with liberty." Upon the old-fashioned right of a man to bargain as an individual if he chooses, and to observe his own interests in the contract, he dwelt with his customary sturdiness. It was something of a dash of cold water at a late post-prandial period of this love feast, but who shall say that it was not more wholesome than the vague conciliatory expressions so common at these meetings?

M. Witte's large plan for reform of legislation affecting peasants is published at a significant moment. It offers the Czar an alternative course to acceptance of the zemstvo petition. Instead of sweeping reforms forced extra-officially upon his notice, he will be able to offer smaller but still important measures framed by his personal councillors. That may well be the meaning of the publication of Witte's plan shortly before the reply to the congress of zemstvo presidents. But it should not be assumed that the Czar will necessarily use the Witte proposals to give color to a complete refusal of the broader petition. There are within the zemstvo scheme, without accepting the radical demand for a parliament, numerous concessions that could be made—in fact some that Prince Mirsky has made in advance of the request. So the Czar would be short-sighted if, yielding to alarmist counsels of the reactionaries, he failed to give some recognition to the voice of his people as expressed by the zemstvoists. The numerous disorders, which in part seem to be due to *agents provocateurs* of the conservative faction, call loudly not for repression, but for some expression of liberal intentions towards an oppressed people, now coming to a dangerous stage of self-consciousness.

THE SENATORSHIP ET CETERA.

"Of course, the Legislature will decide who is to be Senator; but it is pretty sure to adopt Gov. Odell's suggestion." Thus spake William L. Ward, Republican boss of Westchester County. The reason why the Legislature is so ready to fall in with the Odell view is explained in another illuminating remark by Mr. Ward: "When Odell makes up his mind, he will tell me, and I will tell the boys up there, and I suppose they will vote as the Governor wishes." Thus our academic students of political science can see the very operation of that fundamental principle of a republic—"Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the Governor." Mr. Ward's Declaration of Dependence throws an interesting light on an article by Samuel P. Orth in the December *Atlantic*. Mr. Orth, after complaining that our legislatures are subject to much ridicule and denunciation, proceeds to show by statistics that there are in the membership imposing percentages of lawyers, merchants, honest farmers, college graduates, and self-educated men. Whence he justly concludes, "One must be profoundly impressed by the real representative character of these law-making bodies." The New York Legislature, at any rate, is the real representative of the Odell machine.

That machine has apparently determined upon Frank S. Black as the successor to Depew, for Black's candidacy has been boldly announced by his personal organ, the *Troy Times*. It kindly informs us that the ex-Governor has been "compelled" to this step "by the general request from Republicans in all parts of the State"—a spontaneous uprising of the marionettes. It is inconceivable that Black, after a show of holding back for several weeks, should now irrevocably enter the field unless he were assured of the support of the one man who can make and unmake United States Senators. And since Gov. Odell's shallow professions of impartiality have been unmasked and the last lingering doubt as to his purpose has been dispelled, the lawyers, merchants, honest farmers, college graduates, and self-educated men who form our august Legislature will exhibit their real representative character by cringing to the whip and licking the hand that strikes them.

In this critical juncture of his affairs, Senator Depew presents every appearance of being "chloroformed"—to use Gov. Odell's expressive phrase. As late as Saturday some of Mr. Depew's close advisers complacently declared their belief that Gov. Odell is not finally committed in this contest; that the numerous protests from friends of Depew are giving him pause; and that he may yet come out for Depew. All this recalls that pleasing oratorical figure of the vampire fanning its victim with its wings while

it sucks the blood. What the most knowing politicians are saying is, "Sorry for poor Depew. He'll be disappointed, but he'll take his medicine with a smile, as he always does." The truth is, that the junior Senator is not the man for a knock-down and drag-out fight. Naturally amiable, he has acquired the habit of surrendering to the majority, or what he supposes is the majority; and at last he has seemingly lost the power of vigorous self-assertion. He has been shoved and hustled by bosses till he accepts their orders as part of the day's work. As the genial friend and well-wisher of everybody, he has for years been proclaiming a general amnesty in Sancho Panza's own terms: "I forgive all injuries, past, present, or to come, which I have already received, at this present time suffer, or may hereafter undergo, from any person, high or low, rich or poor, gentle or simple, without exception of rank or circumstance." These are Christian sentiments for any time of year, and especially for this happy Christmas season; but there is a possibility of being too complaisant. "Blessed are the meek," says Gov. Odell, "for they are an easy mark."

There is one other man who is not cutting a very heroic figure in this contest—Governor-elect Higgins. He is entirely willing to confess that he has a positive choice for the Senatorship, but this preference he steadfastly refuses to reveal. If he be working secretly for one side or the other, he will do well to come out of the subway and show himself in the open. If he feel that propriety forbids him to meddle in the controversy, he should remember that his own fate as well as Mr. Depew's is being decided in these so-called "conferences" with Gov. Odell. Before the election Mr. Higgins was very loud in his proclamation that he was "no man's man." "That," cried the admiring friends of Mr. Higgins, "is a plain notice to Odell to keep his hands off. Higgins will be the man at Albany." Yet there were skeptics who, granting Mr. Higgins's desire to maintain his independence, questioned his power. Odell was evidently to be master of the Legislature, and he might easily swathe the Governor in bandages till he should be as helpless as a mummy. The process is already well under way. If Gov. Higgins tamely yields while Odell disregards him in the choice of a United States Senator, he will be flouted by Odell in everything else. The Speaker of the Assembly will be Odell's Speaker; the committees of both houses will be Odell's committees; the officers of the State will be Odell's officers; the fate of bills, good and bad, will rest in Odell's hands; and Gov. Higgins, like it or not, will be forced to sit, a gentle and obedient child, in Odell's lap.

SENSATIONAL FOREIGN NEWS.

At an international gathering of journalists recently held in London, a Russian editor made a striking plea for sanity in handling foreign news. He condemned the habit of burdening the cables with casual expressions of that sensationalism which afflicts all nations. He showed how a spiteful or incendiary paragraph which would be quietly disregarded at home, might in a foreign country assume undue importance and stir up resentment. Naturally, he dwelt upon the great harm done in Russia by the repetition of the worst expressions of the British anti-Russian press, and, conversely, in England by the representation of Russia as the pariah of the nations. And, finally, he pleaded that editors and news-gatherers alike should work not to gratify international prejudices, but to foster good will between nations.

The evil here pointed out is undeniable. International news service—with the exception of the *London Times* (of late years, however, a sinner through chauvinism), the *Rotterdam Courant*, and a few papers of like grade—is often defective or positively bad. In part, the trouble is inevitable. Newspapers have personalities and prejudices. If we could imagine a New York daily of anti-German and pro-Russian proclivities borrowing its policy from the personal likes and dislikes of its proprietor, we should expect it to "play up" occasional foolish talk in the Reichstag though the speaker and the sentiment were of no consequence whatever. Many newspapers are what they are simply because the owner hates Jews or loves Free Masons, fears the negro unduly or a fall in stock-market prices. For these offences or aberrations there is no remedy except the moral one. But certain evils pointed out by our Russian editor to his British hosts lie in the exciting method of transmitting international news.

The increased use of the cable has added vastly to the quantity and promptness of the news, at the expense of its quality. The old-fashioned correspondent in the foreign capitals, with almost ambassadorial prestige and pay, has yielded to the mere routine gatherer of news items for an agency. In fact, no paper but the *London Times* to-day is served all over the world by its own correspondents; and the extraordinary completeness of its service results in the unhappy but natural result that most of the news we get of Europe, or Europe of itself, is merely the more or less intelligent condensation of *London Times* dispatches—that is, news filtered first through a British correspondent, next through a British editor, and next through a London correspondent before it reaches the home office. Of course, this process, far from clarifying the original matter, tends at least to give it

English coloring, and often leads to more serious misrepresentation, due to carelessness or ignorance as the dispatch is passed along.

For the frequent inaccuracy and occasional sensationalism of their agents the various news agencies should not be blamed unduly. They have the difficulty of serving many masters, and must in many cases transmit matter which they know to be dubious, committing it frankly to the discretion of all sorts and conditions of news editors. But the trouble comes, after all, less through the news agencies than through irresponsible correspondents of the sensational press. The positive dangers of such inflammatory gossip-mongering was illustrated strikingly before the Spanish war here; and if, in general, recklessness in the selection of foreign news is less harmful here than abroad, it is merely because our interest in European affairs is languid. But all that is changing. Diplomatic relations with the Old World must apparently grow closer and more complex, and the time will come when an incendiary press will not be merely demoralizing, but as dangerous here as in London or in Berlin.

Since this is a moral matter, radical improvement will come only with the general growth in intelligence and morality. The news agencies and the individual newspapers would undoubtedly give a more complete and accurate service if it paid. Wild-eyed editors at home would quickly "kill" incredible or merely trivial dispatches if people stopped reading the paper from disgust. But much can be done by suppressing absolutely pernicious items, or by putting up some danger signal where the reader is invited to skate over some thin ice of rumor. Such censorship is naturally defective. Yet how conscientious and how valuable this sifting process may be is not widely realized. Possibly, the production of a class of educated and scrupulous news editors would do most to curb the vagaries of yellow journalists at large. Let colleges of journalism bring forth men who can tell truth from rumor and news from gossip, and the skepticism with which these institutions are commonly greeted would soon cease. In any case, the duty of sobriety and accuracy in printing foreign news was never so great as in this day when the whole world is a whispering gallery.

THE CASE OF ADOLF BECK.

Miscarriages of justice are by no means uncommon, but the case of Adolf Beck, twice tried in England and once imprisoned on the same erroneous identification, is very remarkable. Generally, Justice forgets her impartial blindness for some irresistible motive: religion is involved, as in the case of Joan of Arc; high personages to be shielded, as in Capt. Kydd's mock trial; popular

horror spreads to judges and jurymen, as in many a case of shocking crime or political assassination by a maniac. But in the Beck case there were present none of these manifestations of "crowd psychology."

The charge against this Swedish resident in London was merely petty fraud. A careful scrutiny of the court proceedings by the British Home Office has shown not only that there was no animus against the prisoner, but that all persons connected with the two trials acted regularly and in perfect good faith. The judges, the two sets of counsel, the two juries, may honestly say that under similar circumstances they would repeat their former action. Even the chief witnesses for the prosecution can reproach themselves only with a too great, though perfectly natural, willingness to see in a stranger in custody the rascal who had hoodwinked them. With none of these people lay the moral blame; but with the police court judge who entertained a trivial accusation in the first instance, with the police officers who strained every point to see in Mr. Beck the notorious confidence man Smith, with the officers who had recorded Smith's identification marks so carelessly that they even neglected to mention that he was a Jew; finally, with an unconscious conspiracy to back up the original error by browbeating witnesses and suppressing possible evidence against the Smith-alias-Beck theory. The French General Staff itself hardly bowed more supinely to the *chose jugée* than did English Bumbledom in this instance to its own infallibility.

To make the case clear, recall that Mr. Beck was originally a complainant. In December, 1895, standing in his own doorway, Victoria Street, he was accosted by a strange woman with the outcry, "What have you done with my watch?" He had her promptly arrested, and followed her to the police court, where the nature of the swindle alleged by the woman caused the police to jump to the conclusion that Beck was the malodorous Smith who eighteen years earlier had been sentenced to a term. Assuming this identification, the justice denied Mr. Beck's complaint and entertained the woman's. From that time it is a sorry story of attempts to prove that Beck was Smith. Note that there was no striking personal resemblance between the two. Yet many women, excited by the hope of getting their money back, confidently identified in Beck their cajoler. In court the police swore they saw on Beck's unscarred face the scars and birth-marks they had noted on Smith's. Finally, a reputable handwriting expert testified that Smith's handwriting was merely a disguised form of Beck's. And as if to crown the misfortunes of the unhappy defendant, the judge—led apparently by an honest desire not to prejudice the prisoner's case—

ruled out all evidence as to the frauds of 1877, and therewith all direct discussion of the question of identity. In fact, so strong a web of sincere error was woven about the proceedings—the complainants had unquestionably been defrauded—that it is no wonder the jury found blameless Mr. Beck guilty and the judge sentenced him to seven years' penal servitude.

It was during this imprisonment that infallible officialdom appeared in its most sinister light. Mr. Beck's frequent petitions to the Home Office and the activities of the Swedish Minister brought uneasiness to all the hosts of Dogberrydom concerned. Suppose they were wrong, and Beck was not Smith? Beck must be Smith or the query of identity evaded. So they changed Mr. Beck's prison number, took away the label which in his capacity as a "second-term-er" he had worn since his condemnation, and gave him that borne by first offenders. Thus it became more difficult to trace him or his grievance. Worse yet, some bungling and dishonest hand changed "dark" to "fresh" in the description of Smith's complexion, so that it might more nearly correspond to Beck's. To cut a painful matter short, Beck served his term and continued to work for a legal vindication. This he owed to the astounding good fortune of being rearrested this year on similar charges of fraud. Again he was stopped on the street by a woman victim of Smith's, again the case was tried without reference to the question of identity, again the judge was about to charge against the prisoner—when, lo! Smith in person, "dark," not "fresh," Jew not Swede. Thus it was only the scandal of a second trial that set the Home Office to investigating some of the devious byways of British justice, and only the happy advent of Smith that saved Beck from a second term at hard labor.

The whole fabric of judicial error comes down in the last analysis to the mistake of the woman who first accused Beck. To the police it never occurred that she could have taken an innocent stranger for her defrauder. The swindles for which Smith was condemned in 1877 and Beck arrested in 1895 were so unusual and so completely similar that it seemed impossible to doubt the same person was concerned in either case. And even the dogged persistence of the police in their identification, their prompting of witnesses, and staving off possible investigation—all were prompted by very simple motives of professional pride. They hated to give up Beck, just as a rather dogged or unlucky angler hesitates to return to the stream a fish just a hair short of the legal length. In such cases the creel or the prison gets the benefit of a large doubt, and the moral of the Beck case is much less that there should be

reform of British criminal procedure—a criminal court of appeals and the like—than that everywhere there should be constant vigilance to protect individuals against collective stupidity and colossal capacity for blundering in every officialdom that boasts itself above mistake.

AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN TROUBLES.

The renewal of the riotous tactics of the Opposition in the Lower House of the Hungarian Diet augurs ill for the ability of Count Tisza to maintain himself long against the united obstructionists. It is unlikely that the Premier's appeal from the passions of Parliament to the deliberate judgment of the people will save his Ministry. Yet it is clear that the violence of the Opposition is not sanctioned by the country, and that the temporary coalition of the Deákist, Count Julius Andrássy, the chauvinistic Nationalist, Count Albert Apponyi, the radical, Francis Kossuth, the ex-Premier, Baron Bánffy, and a number of prominent reactionaries, clericals, and independents, is doomed to end before long in humiliating discomfiture, no matter what may be the fate of Tisza himself.

The fury of the passions aroused by what seemed to be a mere question of reform of parliamentary procedure, becomes intelligible in the light of the action of the Opposition before and directly after the adoption of Count Tisza's proposal to hold night sessions. Like his predecessor, Kolomán Szell, Tisza has had to face a deadlock which paralyzed the Government. The Opposition had resisted every effort of the Ministry to amend the rules of order. When Tisza finally moved an evening session of the Chamber, the Opposition protested that such a proposal was against the rules of the House. They denied the right of the Premier to put the motion to a vote, and left the Chamber in a body when the vote was ordered. Immediately after President Perczel had declared the motion carried, the Premier read a royal decree closing the session of the Diet. Thereupon the members of the Opposition issued an address to the throne, drawn up by Count Apponyi, which charged the Prime Minister and the President of the Chamber with having "laid a sacrilegious hand upon the constitutional guarantees whose inviolability your Majesty had solemnly sworn to respect, and which are the sole basis of your Majesty's power." The signers asked the King to entrust the Government to those more faithful to the Constitution.

This appeal to the Crown, Count Tisza very effectively seized upon, in an address before a meeting of citizens of Budapest, as in itself a violation of the Constitution. He acknowledged that, while he might have violated the letter of the law, he did so in order to protect

the Constitution against those who would make its working impossible. The force of his argument cannot be denied, for the logic of such appeals as Apponyi and his followers intend to make to the electorate would, through defiance of the wishes of the majority of the Diet, lead to a refusal to pay taxes or obey a call for recruits—in other words, to open revolution. The Prime Minister has, however, sustained a far severer blow than the temporary withdrawal of such men as Count Andrássy from the Liberal party, in the resignation, as a member of Parliament, of Tisza's predecessor, Kolomán Szell. The ex-Minister is a serious, moderate, and patriotic statesman, who, while in office, counselled passive resistance to obstruction. When Tisza unexpectedly succeeded him by what he could not help considering an act of treachery, Szell at first warmly supported the new Premier, but finally withdrew to his estate, and has since taken little interest in public affairs. He now justifies his quitting Parliament in a letter to his constituents declaring that, while he considers a revision of parliamentary rules necessary, he deprecates the impatience and arbitrariness of the Government, which virtually amount to an infraction of the Constitution.

The attitude of the King towards the Hungarian Premier is uncompromisingly favorable, and there is little doubt that the veiled anti-dynastic threat in Apponyi's address, and the more or less open agitation of the Kossuth party in favor of a separation of Hungary from Austria, will fall of their effect on the masses. They, whatever their political differences, are loyal to the King. Count Tisza has very justly characterized the tactics of the Opposition as "borrowed from Cisleithania," where attacks on the dynasty are becoming more and more frequent. Nor are they confined to the German liberals and radicals. Extremes meet in the Vienna Reichsrath, as in the Hungarian Diet, and quite recently two such opposite spokesmen of their respective parties as the ignorant and erratic Czech Agrarian, Count Sternberg, and the highly cultured and eminently respectable Social-Democrat Pernerstorfer (a former professor of history), indulged in denunciations of the Hapsburg dynasty the only parallel to which can be found in the debates of the Convention preceding the sentence of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette.

Perhaps the most significant fact in connection with these assaults is the apathy with which the House received them. A mild call to order, on the part of the President, a perfunctory protest of the leader of the Polish Conservatives, Count Dzieduszycki, were the only answer to Pernerstorfer's arraignment of the house of Hapsburg, its idle and dissolute men, and its ignorant and priest-ridden women. The speaker, it

is true, distinctly disavowed any intention of reflecting on the person of the sovereign, but can even the age and the personal popularity of Francis Joseph long shield him from the ultimate consequences of an agitation whose war-cry, "Los von Rom!" is now turning into the more ominous "Los von Oesterreich"? But what may portend disruption in Cisleithania foretells in Hungary, in spite of the present tumult and temporary confusion, only the growing national aspirations of an intensely patriotic people, united in their ultimate aims. It is true of the Hungary of today, as it was when Gibbon wrote, that "arms and freedom have ever been the ruling, though often the unsuccessful passion of the Hungarians, who are endowed by nature with a vigorous constitution of soul and body."

A BRILLIANT NAVAL CAMPAIGN.

With the partial sinking of the battleship *Sevastopol*, the Japanese naval victory in the East is complete. So thoroughgoing has the work been that the dispatch announcing the success of the Japanese torpedo-boat attacks on the last Russian battleship above water at Port Arthur concludes laconically, "Admiral Togo's ships will now go into dock." It means for his fleet the ending of the long and wearying vigil begun on February 8 last, for the patrolling of the harbor can now well be left to torpedo-boats. Even should blockade-runners succeed in making the port, they will be exposed to the merciless fire of Gen. Nogi's naval batteries on 203-Metre Hill. The first phase of the naval war is at an end. Before the next begins there must be an interim of at least two months.

During ten months of active service the Japanese have practically wiped out the strongest fleet in the East, consisting of seven battleships—one more than Japan possessed—four armored cruisers, seven protected cruisers, eight unprotected cruisers and dispatch boats, several gunboats, twenty-four torpedo-boat destroyers, and twelve torpedo-boats. They began by assailing the Russian fleet in Port Arthur on February 8, and torpedoing the battleships *Retvizan*, *Poltava*, and *Tsesarevitch*, and the cruisers *Pallada*, *Novik*, *Askold*, and *Diana*. The result was to make a sortie impossible for many months. The next day they sank the American-built cruiser *Variag* and the torpedo gunboat *Koriets*, off Chemulpo, in what is still for the Russians the pluckiest fight of the war, their vessels going out to certain destruction with unsurpassed courage and determination. In quick succession the Russian torpedo transport *Yenesai*, and the second-class cruiser *Boyarin* sank on February 11th and 13th, as the result of striking Russian mines. A terrible blow befell the Port Arthur

fleet on April 13, by the sinking of the battleship *Petropavlovsk* with their great Admiral, Makharoff, on board. Meanwhile, the torpedo-boat destroyers rapidly decreased in numbers, one being sunk on March 11, another on March 16, and a third on April 13. Three more of these small vessels escaped to Kiaochou on August 12, and were dismantled there. The *Ryeshitelni* was captured on August 13 at Chefoo and the *Rastoropny* was blown up at the same port on November 15 by her own crew.

On August 11 came the unsuccessful sortie from Port Arthur. In the ensuing battle no ships were sunk on either side, but the Russian ships, after being terribly punished, fled in various directions. The battleship *Tsesarevitch* was dismantled at Kiaochou; the protected cruiser *Askold* and the destroyer *Grozovoi* at Shanghai, where the gunboat *Mandzhur* had been disarmed early in the war; and the protected cruiser *Diana* at Saigon on September 6. The gunboat *Sivuch* was scuttled in the Niuchwang River in July, and one of the *Qivazhni* class was sunk by a mine on August 18. The cruiser *Novik* succeeded in reaching the port of Korsakovsk on the island of Saghalien, but she was there caught and sunk by two Japanese cruisers on August 20. About this time three of the four armored cruisers, comprising the Vladivostok squadron, had been overtaken by Admiral Kamimura, with the result that the *Rurik* was sunk. The *Bogatyr* was previously run on the rocks at the entrance to Vladivostok, from which place the *Gromoboi* has also been reported disabled. Every officer on her and the *Ros-sia* had been killed or wounded when they finally reached port after the encounter with Kamimura. The unprotected cruiser *Lena* was dismantled at San Francisco on September 15. The ships just placed *hors de combat* at Port Arthur are the battleships *Poltava*, *Sevastopol*, *Peresviet*, and *Pobieda*, and the *Ketvian*; the armored cruiser *Bayan*; the protected cruiser *Giliak*; the hospital ship *Amur*, and, presumably, the remaining destroyers.

This extraordinary result has been achieved with a loss to the Japanese of one battleship, the *Hatsuse*, two protected cruisers, the *Yoshino* and *Saiyen*; the gunboats *Kaimon* and *Heiyei*, the dispatch-boat *Miyako*, and several torpedo-boats and destroyers. The sinking of the *Adsuma*, one of the best of the armored cruisers, has been alleged by the Russians, but only the ships mentioned have been officially admitted lost by the Japanese. Remarkable is the fact that of these six large Japanese vessels, not a single one succumbed to Russian gunfire, and only two Russian vessels of any size have been destroyed by the guns of the enemy's ships. Unique as is this war in many respects, it must always remain

notable for the great damage inflicted on both sides by floating mines. The decision of the Russian ships left at Port Arthur not to attempt a sortie can be explained on two grounds: either they had been stripped of guns and men to assist in the repelling of the land attacks, or they had never been able to repair the very severe damages inflicted upon them on August 11. One thing is plainly established: the handling of the fleet after the death of Makharoff was of the very worst, and must encourage the Japanese in thinking that, whatever the paper superiority of the Baltic fleet, they cannot fail to be victorious over such inefficient and ill-trained officers and crews as plainly comprise the bulk of the Russian navy. *Concluded.*

All in all, the Japanese have added a wonderful chapter to naval history. They have made mistakes, and some of those, like the license to destroy given to the Vladivostok squadron, have cost them dear. Had they not taken the Russians unawares at the very beginning, the war might have gone differently. But this reflects again only on the Russians. Togo's and Kamimura's men have shown a dash, a determination, and a courage which have compelled universal admiration. Moreover, their Oriental readiness to die has not for a moment led them to risk unnecessarily their precious vessels. Their long-range fighting on August 11th is fully explained by their knowledge that they had no battleship reserves. The pity of it is, from their point of view, that this caution was necessary. Had they been able to close in, much of the terrible slaughter around Port Arthur would have been prevented.

FORM AND SUBSTANCE IN THE MEXICAN REPUBLIC.

MEXICO, December 15, 1904.

In one of his recent lectures at the Lowell Institute Mr. James Bryce remarked that the Spanish-American republics are in no sense examples of self-governing countries. In this respect, the view of the student coincides entirely with that of Americans and other foreigners resident in these so-called republics. But Mr. Bryce went on further to express the belief that this condition arises not from an inherent lack of capacity for self-government, but from the defective state of the masses in these countries and the faulty régime, mental, social, and economical, which their upper class inherited from the period of Spanish tutelage. This is not the view of rampant "Anglo-Saxonism," which often appears in the undiplomatically expressed contempt of the American resident in Mexico or the South American republics, and which regards self-government as the peculiar property of one God-favored race, or blend of northern races, and condemns the Spanish-Americans either as Spaniards or as "niggers," or as mongrels of both, and hence unfit on all counts for the free institutions of the Anglo-Saxon.

Where race-feeling speaks in this fashion,

there is rarely present in its exponent either the equipment of education or the judicial turn of mind which alone permits of real tolerance, and which would let him take into account the influences of environment and social education that, to Mr. Bryce's notion, excuse the Spanish-American for much in him to-day that is defective, and give hope for a future career for him as a real "citizen of the republic." Race prejudice, which commonly appeals to an "inherent sense of superiority," brooks no argument on such grounds. There is, indeed, here and there an American who, when visiting these republics, recalls that self-government is not yet perfect in the United States; here and there one who, having had some experience in Mexico or the Argentine Republic or one of the few other of these governments where stability and order have been attained in recent years, frankly owns to a preference for "benevolent despotism." And truly this foremost of the "benevolent despotisms" of Spanish-America (for Mexico is quite unanimously put at the head of the list) can claim adequate preparation for a career in self-government in only one respect, though that is fundamentally essential, viz., the maintenance of stability. Public opinion, in its proper sense, applying not merely to the expressions of a dominating class, will be possible only when the masses are better educated. There is a system by which it might make itself felt, were it intelligent and energetic enough to do so, in the carefully designed election machinery of the Mexican Constitution; but the very inability of the Mexican masses to handle that machinery intelligently has made the elections a farce.

There cannot be an independent judiciary, no matter how its members are chosen, where the executive power so dominates all others as it does in Mexico. The Federal judges are elected, while for the most part those of the State courts are appointed by the Governor; but, elected or appointed, they all owe their position to the power above, which is the Executive. The legislative power is in the same position of subordination, although perhaps somewhat more immediately so than the judiciary. The latter, however, is, if anything, ranked in dignity by the legislative branch of government; inevitably, there is a lack of that respect for the prestige of the courts which alone can give their decisions great weight. In the final analysis, indeed, these decisions and their enforcement rest with the Executive, which is not above taking a hand in the making of them if occasion seems to require or the proper influence is exerted. Note the following personal letter from the Governor of a State to a judge of a civil court in one of its districts, in regard to a case involving the settlement of an estate:

"I have received word that in the court under your charge there is being conducted the settlement of the ——— estate, wherefore I venture to recommend you to endeavor to terminate this matter with the greatest celerity possible and as justice demands. Your affectionate brother[—lawyer], friend, and trusty servant," etc.

To be sure, this case involved the rights of a citizen of another country, and the court had been unusually dilatory in handling it; moreover, in writing this personal letter to the judge at the request of an in-

terested party, the Governor took occasion to remark that the Executive exercised ordinarily no control over the judiciary, and he was departing from the rule in this case only because the rights of foreigners were affected. Nevertheless, where possible in one case, such interference is, of course, not improbable in all; and there is sure to be pressure of a less tangible sort upon a judge when he knows that a party to a suit before him is "close to" the executive power.

This exaltation of the Executive (who, indeed, in the municipalities, combines the powers of mayor with those of chief of police and of police-judge) is not merely the outgrowth of conditions which have, during the last quarter-century, under a strong Executive in Mexico, tended to the centralization of power in order to maintain quiet, protect property, and invite foreign investments. It is an inheritance from the Spanish régime, when government was entirely in the hands of the officials directly responsible to the Viceroy, and the Viceroy was himself the representative of the King. To this extent Mr. Bryce's ascription of present unfitness for self-government to an inherited environment is justified by the facts of history. Wherever Spain has been, the vital idea of government is still that of absolute authority, whether it be that of a president-dictator or the *jefe* of the smallest outlying *barrio*.

Theoretically, the legislative power in Mexico is separate from and independent of the Executive; practically, it is the latter power which decides who shall be members of the Federal Congress and the State Legislatures, and which does the real work of law-making, sending bills to the Legislature or promulgating decrees directly in pursuance of a legislative resolution abdicating control over laws regarding a special matter or an entire subject. The latest tariff law of Mexico was enacted by a decree of President Diaz, and on thirty days' notice (some of its schedules, indeed, being put into effect five days after publication). The recent issuance of \$40,000,000 in bonds was made by the President in consequence of a resolution of Congress two years ago authorizing such action when he deemed it necessary. So, also, the bond issues and the other important steps connected with the acquiring by the Mexican Government last year of a controlling interest in three trunk lines of railroad, and the consolidation of these lines into a quasi-governmental system, were all negotiated, down to the final details, before any news of the project was transmitted to Congress; moreover, the matter was not discussed in Congress beyond the reading of the Finance Minister's message, the necessary legislative authority being given without question. Congress is a mere automaton, by which certain forms specified by the Constitution are ceremoniously complied with. Very few of its members come from the districts which they represent, but they are lawyers of the capital, Federal officeholders, etc., who find pleasure in the empty honors of their position, and only in rare cases even think of the Legislature as being the repository of real power in a popular government. So, in the State capitals, hardly a member of the Legislature is a resident of the district for which he is elected with all due formality. Nearly all are lawyers

of the capital, addicted to the faction in power, and sometimes half of them are executive officeholders of one sort and another. The Constitution forbids the holding of a seat in the Legislature by an executive officer, unless by special vote of that body itself; at the beginning of each session, whether of Federal Congress or of State Legislature, there is a batch of resolutions to put through, each dealing with such a special case of exemption.

The idea of ministerial responsibility is not recognized in the Mexican Constitution; if it were, the close connection between the Executive and legislative authority might appear at least to be more logical, though there could be but the merest show of "responsible government" where parties are almost suppressed—an open anti-Government party being "seditious"—and where the Legislature is merely the echo of the President or of the State Governor. Still, there is an informal recognition of the right of the Executive to be heard in the halls of legislation. President Diaz reads his messages to Congress; similarly, the Governors of the States. The members of the President's Cabinet address their bills direct to Congress. In most of the States, the Secretary of the State Government (who is virtually the Governor's personal representative as well as secretary) has a seat in the Legislature whenever desired, and a voice in explanation of Executive policy, though not a vote. Practically, he is the Governor's messenger in directing what is to be "put through," and how. Let us take the record of an ordinary session of a State Legislature.

The official gazette of one of the States of Mexico, for instance, shows as one day's record of its Legislature the following: Special permission granted to two legislators to serve as executive employees of the State, one as president of a State institution of education; confirmation of a contract signed by the Governor exempting a mining company from taxation on a new mill for a certain period of years; the acknowledgment of notes of courtesy from two other State legislatures (in far distant States), conveying the information that their sessions had opened; acknowledgment of the note of information from a Federal Cabinet officer in Mexico City of the appointment of a new assistant secretary in his department, with a specimen of his official signature; the listening to and thanking a legislator who had found an old volume belonging to the Legislature for sale in the market, and had restored it to the library. And this was a rather unusually busy session. The Legislature is provided with an elaborate set of rules, but almost all of them have to do with official formalities of one sort and another, and the rules governing discussion are very brief. They provide that no individual can occupy more than a half-hour of time, except by special vote, and only the mover of a bill or resolution, and the members of the committee which has considered it, can speak more than twice on it. Ordinary sessions are not to last more than two hours, except by special vote; in fact, they rarely last half that time. There are two sessions per year, each lasting three months. The Legislature of a State generally having but one house and only from twelve to thirty members, all residing in the capital, is easily kept to-

gether. When it is not officially in session, there is always the "permanent deputations," composed of three members (with two substitutes), who have all the powers of the Legislature in routine matters, though not supposed to be able to pass anything having the effect of a general law. This idea is one borrowed from Spanish Parliamentary methods early in the nineteenth century, and is a feature of all Spanish-American constitutions. Primarily, the idea was one of suspicion, *i. e.*, to keep a watch on the Executive, to see that he did not usurp functions during the recess of the Legislature, which was thus given theoretically a continuous life.

Some of the State legislatures choose a chairman and vice-chairman every month. While in the chair, however, the presiding officer has a wide scope of power; he generally names the committees (though sometimes they are chosen by ballot), he has full decision as to what committee shall consider any matter presented to the house, and he settles the order of discussion. The idea of placing power for action within the hands of a sole authority follows even into the halls of legislation. Only the Governor and the superior judges of a State, the Federal officials, and the officials of other States can address the Legislature officially—which means that others must put the stamps prescribed by the revenue law on their petitions, or they will go into the waste-basket.

The ceremonial for the opening of the Legislature is prescribed in minute detail; so, also, for the taking of the oath by the Governor and by the judges of the Supreme Court, the Governor being seated to the right of the presiding officer, while the Legislators must stand until he is seated and stand with him during the taking of the oath, which is, for all Government officials, as follows:

"Do you swear, without any reservation, to maintain and protect the maintenance of the Political Constitution of the Mexican United States, the additions and amendments decreed on the 25th of September of 1873, and the special Constitution of the State, and to comply with the duties of your office?"

"Yes, I swear."

"If you do so, may the Nation and the State reward you, and, if not, may they require account of you for it."

The same tendency toward centralization of power is to be noted in regard to educational institutions conducted by the Government. The State superintendents of education are directly subject to the Governor, by appointment and by his virtual regulation of the sums allotted to their department. If there is a State law school or secondary school, even its rules and regulations are often promulgated by the Governor, if not actually prescribed by him. The rules of one such institution in point allow to the director the "authority" to appoint and remove freely the *major-domo* and the servants, but absolutely nothing beyond that rests solely upon his initiative. The suspicion that characterizes all Spanish law and administration, the setting one man to watch another, appears even here. It is specifically provided that the director must remain on the place at least one hour in the morning and one in the afternoon, besides the time occupied by his own classes. There is a special inspector, too, to watch over discipline, with two assistants, called "monitors." Where a superior school for

girls is provided, the rules multiply, and, besides the female teachers and inspectors, there is commonly a male "visitor," known as the "commissioner of vigilance." Girls' schools are hedged about with great cautiousness of rules, and mixed schools are still looked upon with suspicion in Mexico, even for primary instruction.

So much in support of the statement of Mr. Bryce that the Spanish-American "republics" are not self-governing countries; evidence of the sort could easily be multiplied. It is not so easy to find positive evidence supporting his opinion that progress toward real self-government is to be expected in these countries. Yet it will have been noted that the defects and arbitrariness of government mentioned above do, indeed, appear to have their source in the inherited Spanish social and political organism.

Correspondence.

THE CULTURAL FEATURES OF THE ST. LOUIS EXPOSITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is always something tragic in the destruction of a thing of beauty; and if its life has lasted only a short six months and has, during that period, been a source of joy and instruction to millions of people, and has brought to each of them messages of the highest culture, the regret at its evanescence becomes so much keener. Such is the feeling of the sentimentalist when he sees the imposing and graceful structures of the St. Louis Exposition being levelled to the ground, its grand sculptures effaced, its beautiful gardens and landscapes trod upon by teams and laborers, and dust, lime and refuse disfiguring what was once a laughing, gay and inspiring aggregation of wonders. The philosopher, however, views it simply as one of the things mortal that were predestined to die, and raises the question, Was it worth living, and, having ceased to live, what permanent achievements has it left behind? From this point of view, it may be well to present to your readers not an apotheosis, but rather an apologue of what the St. Louis Exposition has stood for in the line of thought and information.

One of your correspondents, several weeks ago, in describing the St. Louis Fair, gave it as his opinion that one Exposition was like every other; that St. Louis presented the same "show" as did Chicago, Buffalo and Paris; and that its only claim to a difference was its size—in acres—since in every other respect it was only an imitation. In a recent issue of the *Nation* you seem to concur in this view. It is, therefore, a legitimate inquiry to ask what was original and unique at this Exposition, and what were the features it presented that no others did or could, what new sources of information it revealed, and what new fields of thought it opened to the searcher after truth and knowledge.

I will enumerate among these, first of all, the Palace of Education. In all former Expositions there had been educational exhibits of great significance, selected with care, and intended to present the latest and most modern advance in pedagogic science,

but these were scattered among the buildings assigned to each country or State. They stood side by side with their other exhibits, industrial, mechanical, or artistic. The inquiring educator had to make the rounds of the different countries for information as to what advances had been made in his line. There was no aggregation, no juxtaposition for the purpose of comparison, no *ensemble*, to study the various methods and appliances. All was different in St. Louis. A veritable palace, in classic design, was constructed for the housing of the educational exhibits (and no others) of all countries, States, and cities, for all the large colleges and art schools, as well as for the manufacturers of school furniture and equipments, of maps and globes, of models for school buildings, of biological, botanical, and mineral specimens for objective teaching, and, finally, of schoolbooks in all languages of the world. Thus there were aggregated in one building, covering over five acres, the gist and essence of the stride which the public schools and colleges, the education of the blind, deaf, and dumb, the course of manual training, and of the kindergarten, the production of physical apparatus and instruments of precision, and finally the objective method of teaching, had made all over the world. No such opportunity for comparative study, for the accurate measuring of the merits of the different methods, systems, theories, and practices, and no such all-embracing pedagogic information had been furnished to the student and teacher. If we add that every country seemed to vie with every other and the United States, to present not only the best, but also the truest of its educational methods and institutions, and that they were all on one floor and in one vast, though admirably arranged, space, we are safe in saying that, in this one most important respect, the St. Louis Exposition presented a feature that no others did.

Another distinct and original feature which furnished to nineteen millions of people—this having been, within a fraction, the number of admissions—ocular information which they never could have obtained in any other way, was the exposition of the Philippines. Since our country is now, alas, committed to the governing and caretaking of the people of these islands, it was of the highest usefulness to our people that they should, in actual presentation, be made acquainted with the most prominent types of Philippine men and women, with their habits, their mode of living, with their intellectual condition prior to the American guardianship, and their intellectual progress since. There is no doubt that new light has been thrown on the possibilities of this new "acquisition," and that the genuine, unadulterated, and realistic presentation of the scale of humanity from the naked Igorote to the highly civilized mestizo went far to instruct our law-makers and their constituents on the problem how best to govern this distant country.

The essence of this exhibition may be summed up as follows: There were five of the original types of islanders, men, women, and children, about one hundred of each, represented, to wit: Negritos, Igorotes, Bogobos, Moros, and Visayans. Each had its distinct village, laid out exactly as at their homes. They built their own bamboo houses in sight of the visitors; and the skill, ingenuity, and rapidity with which they did

it was remarkable. The Moro houses were built in a large lake which had been specially provided for in the lay-out, resting on bamboo piles, and the interior cunningly arranged in two to three rooms, with kitchen and closets. Every part of these houses, roof, sides, and interiors, even the ladders over which only they could be reached, were made of bamboo, joined with bamboo cleats, and tied with bamboo strings. Models of all sorts of canoes and quite a large ship with bamboo sails were moored on the lake.

Passing over the exhibitions of dancing, singing, wrestling, and fighting (a sham bolo fight was an almost daily performance) given by each of these tribes in their specific ways, passing further over the sickening exhibition of the Igorotes killing a dog daily for their meals, and waiving a description of picturesque Manila and its city walls with the stone bridge leading to it, all perfectly and truthfully modelled, two distinct departments attracted the attention of the observer on account of their economic and social significance. These were the exhibitions of the products of the islands in one building, and a Philippine school in actual operation occupying another building constructed in the style of the Manila Cathedral. Of the products, the manufactured ones, considering the newness of the civilization, were, excepting that of rope, naturally of little significance. But the wealth of raw material was imposing. Specimens of timber, stone, and minerals, tobacco, grains, marble, indigo, coffee, and rubber plants pointed distinctly to the inducements which these islands offer to development by capital. The school itself was a revelation. To see these half-naked, half-savage boys and girls spell, recite and sing in English, to observe the method employed by the teachers, the gay interest of the pupils and their good manners, one could not help praising the Administration for what it had accomplished. However sincerely we Mugwumps may deplore the as yet indefinable burden which the Spanish war and the resultant father-ship of the Philippines has imposed upon us, the candid observer must confess that, in the educational line at least, this *fait accompli* has been met by the authorities in an intelligent and effective way. The schoolmaster is evidently abroad in the islands, and wherever he goes civilization marks his trail. I was told that the Filipinos had learned more English in the last three years than they had learned Spanish in the preceding three hundred years.

A third feature of the Exposition which has not had a counterpart in any previous one, and which served a highly intelligent and sociological purpose, was the "Model City." The idea of this originated with the Civic Improvement League of this city, with the intention of bringing about a display of the best municipal buildings, actual and designed, of the various methods of street paving, of public nurseries, children's playgrounds, parks, etc. This was very happily carried out. A street, about half a mile in length, was lined on each side with beautiful staff structures designed for town halls, guild halls, casinos, etc., a large and simply, though tastefully, arranged nursery and playgrounds in park fashion, which were continually thronged with gay and happy children whose parent visitors had entrusted them there for safe

keeping, presented an inspiring sight. New York, San Francisco and Kansas City contributed instructive specimens. The New York building contained exact models, on a large scale, of its ancient City Hall, of the new Tombs with the arrangement of prison cells, of the rapid-transit subway complete and in various stages of construction, and of the Brooklyn and Williamsburgh bridges. The latter were delightfully true, and showed the shapes of the various members—girders, braces, eye-plates, anchorage of ropes and chains—in a way which every unprofessional visitor could comprehend. A pleasing memorial to a departed artist who had made the adornment of cities his life study, was erected on the south side of the Model City street by Mr. Albert Kelsey, an architect of Philadelphia, in the shape of a beautiful Town Hall, of chaste design, on the front of which was the largely lettered inscription:

THE CIVIC PRIDE MONUMENT
IN MEMORY OF
CHARLES ELIOT, LANDSCAPE ARTIST

—thus honoring the memory of the gifted son of an eminent father.

I have mentioned these three exhibits as having been unique in the line of culture and in the presentation of valuable knowledge. But one of the most important incidents of the Exposition was the arrangement for congresses and conventions of a purely scientific character. Foremost among these was the "International Congress of Arts and Sciences," which convened in the week September 19-25, and was attended by the most eminent thinkers and scientists of this country and Europe. Of this the *Nation* gave a preliminary account. The invited delegates were selected from among the most intellectual forces in their respective spheres of this country and Europe, and, surely, there never was a finer array of the flower of scientists and thinkers assembled. Altogether, 459 names appeared on the official list, of whom there were 135 from abroad (including two from Japan and one from Mexico) and the remainder from the United States. To each one, except to the chairmen, the subject pertaining to his specialty, on which he was expected to address the convention, was assigned. The occasion was productive of deliverances of lasting importance, and it has been resolved by the Exposition Directory to publish the proceedings and all the papers read at the convention, under the editorship of Prof. Howard J. Rogers, the able director of the Congress. Among the vast number of eminent foreigners who were present, only a few can here be mentioned, such as the Right Hon. James Bryce and Sir William Ramsay of London, Professors Harnack and Delitzsch of Berlin, Picard, Lévy, and Brunetière of Paris, Vambery of Budapest, Conrad of Halle, Zorn of Bonn, Lombroso of Turin, etc. It may not be known that the Exposition Directory paid to each delegate an honorarium of \$500, and equipped a comfortable dormitory in the Library building of Washington University, close to the Hall of Congresses, free, for their accommodation. But only a few had occasion to avail themselves of the latter, as most of them were entertained, during their whole stay, by the hospitable citizens of St. Louis at their homes.

Of the many other conventions for the discussion of special branches of knowledge, only a few can be mentioned, such as the meeting of the National Educational Association, of the Electrical Engineers, of the Lawyers and Jurists, under the auspices of the American Bar Association; the International Press Parliament, the Peace Congress, at which almost every country in Europe was represented, and at which Count Apponyi made his famous address, and, finally, the International Engineers' Association, which met under the auspices of the American Society of Civil Engineers. This was one of the notable meetings, largely attended by the most eminent engineers of the foreign and home societies, and was productive of addresses and papers and discussions thereon of a solid character, which were ordered to be published and will fill several volumes.

It may be fairly contended, from this necessarily limited résumé of the intellectual features of the St. Louis Exposition, that it has been of lasting value. W. T.

St. Louis, December 15, 1904.

LITERACY IN THE PHILIPPINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I find in Prof. Juan Sumulong's discussion of the "Philippine Problem" in the *North American Review* for December the following statement:

"The Filipino people has received under Spain not an Oriental but a European education, which has brought into being a body of men capable of directing the government of the country. It has often been said that the great majority of the population lack not only political experience, but even the most elementary education. But this last is not a correct statement, for, apart from Spanish, the Filipinos who cannot at least read and write their own dialect are few and rare indeed."

Is it possible that this is true, and that Mr. Alleyne Ireland is in error when he says, in his article on the same subject in the *Atlantic Monthly* for November: "There is a small educated class, but 90 per cent. of the population can neither read nor write"? JAMES MASCARENE HUBBARD.

Boston, December 14, 1904.

CHOPIN'S LEFT HAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many musicians and other people will be startled by your critic's assertion that "Chopin exerted as great an influence on the musical world as Beethoven did." Being an enthusiastic admirer of Chopin, I will leave somebody else to challenge that statement; but as the same critic wonders that "Mr. Dannreuther could accept the preposterous notion that Chopin kept strict time with his left hand and confined his *tempo rubato* to the right hand," I should like to mention the testimony of two gentlemen who heard Chopin at a concert in Paris in 1842-43. They were both excellent amateur musicians and performers, but too exclusively disciples of the classic school to be carried away by Chopin's eccentric and modern genius; what they spoke of above everything was his "extraordinary left hand," which maintained a perfectly even, steady movement, entirely independent of the other. This was what impressed them most in Chopin's playing, and I have often heard them mention it. Both

of them had frequently heard Thalberg, Liszt, and other less famous pianists of those and later times.

Yours respectfully, S. B. W.

PHILADELPHIA, December 12, 1904.

[We are quite prepared to hear that some readers were startled by our assertion that Chopin exerted as great an influence on the musical world as Beethoven did, but they will have to get used to it, for it is undoubtedly true. In pianoforte music, and in the realm of harmony and modulation, Chopin's influence has, indeed, been much greater. Beethoven's influence practically ceased half a century ago; since that time Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner have predominated. As for Chopin's *tempo rubato*, it is possible that he may have urged his French and German pupils to play in strict time, because their attempts at *rubato* were likely to degenerate into caricatures. But that he, the incarnation of poetic freedom of motion, should have played with metronomic precision is simply inconceivable. Berlioz's testimony that "Chopin could not play strictly in time" (*ne pouvait pas jouer régulièrement*) is worth more than that of any number of pupils. How the unwary may have been deceived is illustrated in the case of Paderewski when he plays a Chopin mazurka. His freedom of movement is so natural, so unconscious, that one might easily suppose he was playing in strict time; but any metronome trying to keep pace with his hand—right or left—would soon be landed in a madhouse. He plays Schubert and other composers in the same way. Indeed, at present all the leading pianists and orchestral conductors play even Bach and Beethoven in defiance of the metronome; and to suppose that Chopin followed it slavishly is, as we said, preposterous.—ED. NATION.]

SCHUBERT'S (?) "ABSCHIED."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Henry T. Finck's otherwise excellent selection of 'Fifty Songs by Franz Schubert,' noticed in your issue of December 8 (No. 2058), I fail to find the pathetic "Last Greeting" ("Abschied"). Could not something have made way for this, or might we not have had a 'Fifty and One Songs'? L. S. N.

December 16, 1904.

[The "Abschied" ("Schon naht, um uns zu scheiden") is a beautiful song, quite worthy of Schubert and generally attributed to him (it may be found, e. g., in the 'Schubert Album,' published by Novello, Ewer & Co., and in the Schirmer collection); but it was not composed by the creator of the "Erlking." Neither of the two great German authorities on Schubert—Mandyczewski and Friedländer—includes it in his edition of the Collected Works of that composer.—ED. NATION.]

BOOK "GUESSING."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The suggestion of Mr. McBryde, in No. 2059 of the *Nation*, that the guessing contest proposed by Messrs. Merrill & Baker in relation to books is "a problem requiring no skill and no literary judgment, but depending altogether upon chance," leads me to quote from a letter from a young friend on the same subject: "All we had to go on was the amount of use the books had received in the _____, _____, and _____ libraries, but I suppose that would hardly stand, as people would be likely to buy different books from those they would draw from a circulating library. On this supposition we chose without hesitation [here followed the list]."

It would appear that in this case both skill and judgment were used—how successfully remains to be seen—and that others who ignore such precautions are less likely to be prize-winners. The letter, written 12th instant in familiar friendship, was preserved by chance, but is quoted literally, and is good evidence that mere luck is not depended upon by every one in forming the estimate.

W.

PRINCETON, December 17, 1904.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co., who have just concluded the admirable Centenary Edition of Emerson's Works, annotated by his son, Dr. Edward W. Emerson, in twelve volumes, are to publish directly 'The Hawthorne Centenary at the Wayside, Concord, Mass., July 4-7, 1904,' with the proceedings in full; and in the spring a 'Bibliography of Hawthorne,' by Miss Nina E. Browne of the Boston Athenæum. They also promise a revised edition of Oscar Fay Adams's 'Dictionary of American Authors,' amounting nearly to ten thousand names.

Dodd, Mead & Co. publish a taking little facsimile of the first (1597) edition of Bacon's Essays from the rare copy in the British Museum. The Essays proper, here only ten in number, really fill out less than a third of the volume, having subjoined to them the Latin "Meditationes Sacre," and the fragment, "Of the Coulers [sic] of Good and Evil," afterwards embodied in the 'De Augmentis.' This is a useful kind of reprint, such as the great libraries would be glad to undertake themselves if they had ample means for the purpose.

The collaboration of two such Dante scholars as Dr. E. Moore and Dr. Paget Toynbee produced in 1894 that most convenient handy edition of Dante's complete works, 'Tutte le Opere di Dante Alighieri' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). Dr. Moore's special charge was the text, his colleague's the index (of names and topics) filling 55 pages in double column; the whole brought within the compass of 500 duodecimo pages. We now receive from the publishers a third edition, extensively revised, the patient waiters for which will certainly be no losers. The revision, as we learn from the preface, has been chiefly in the prose works, and, above all, in the 'De Vulgari Eloquentia,' for which Dr. Paget Toynbee has availed himself of the Trivulzian and Grenoble manu-

scripts in facsimile, and of Prof. Pio Rajna's critical edition, but here not to the exclusion of independent judgment. Dr. Moore gives an idea of the corrupt state of the text before Rajna took it in hand, owing to Corbinelli (in 1577) having altered the Latin MS. to conform to the Italian version first published and become familiar. The rectification of the 'Convivio' has been Dr. Moore's undivided labor, through comparison of some 33 MSS., but much remains for a more complete critical apparatus. To the *Canzoniere* is added an exchange of verse in the Italian fashion between Dante and Forese Donati. Dr. Shadwell has looked after the 'Questio de Aqua et Terra.' So the new edition is an event.

Dr. Condé Benoit Pallen has reprinted in book form, under the title 'The Meaning of the Idylls of the King: An Essay in Interpretation' (American Book Co.), a series of short studies published in a magazine in 1895, which in turn grew out of a brief article in the *Catholic World* ten years before. The original article elicited from the poet a brief note of commendation, in which he said, "You see further into their meaning than most of my commentators have done." While this is not excessive praise, the line of explanation here taken may thus be said to bear the stamp of Tennyson's approval. Dr. Pallen expounds his theory concisely and adds some useful notes, chief among which is his comment on the time element. His explanation of the elaborate allegory shows how far Tennyson had got even by 1859 from the "faint Homeric echoes" of "The Epic" of 1842.

Among the latest issues of the "Belles-Lettres Series" (Heath) is a scholarly edition of Browning's 'Blot in the Scutcheon, Colombe's Birthday, A Soul's Tragedy, and In a Balcony,' by Prof. Arlo Bates. The two-page biography seems hardly necessary; but the introduction is perhaps the best statement of Browning's merits and defects as a dramatist that has yet appeared. Professor Bates is in thorough sympathy with Browning's spirit and aims, but gives us also the point of view of the playgoer, often perplexed by Browning's failure to work out the action after his characters have attained their inner, unseen development. The text is a careful reprint from the definitive edition of 1888-'94, with a full list of variants, chiefly from the first editions. Judicious and truly illuminating notes follow each play. The bibliography, which has been compiled with care, might have included some other well-known names (Fotheringham, H. A. Jones, Hapgood). As a whole, this edition is highly commendable.

The *International Studio* (John Lane) publishes a fully illustrated monograph devoted to a great artist and a clever draughtsman—Daumier and Gavarni. The lesser man gets the greater share of the text, for M. Octave Uzanne has devoted thirty-six pages to Gavarni against twenty which Henri Frantz has given to Daumier, but the plates are nearly equally distributed—about seventy for each artist. Daumier's savage energy and almost epic grandeur are well shown in many examples, which make one feel that the idealism of the ugly is not essentially different from that of the beautiful or the sublime. The kinship to Michelangelo and to Millet is not entirely imaginary, and in the elimination of the non-essential and the resuming of many

observations in one statement there is a real analogy to the procedure of Watts. The mocking spirit of Gavarni, the Parisian dandy, is much lighter, and the bitterness of his later work is much more inhuman. There is always a strange sympathy underlying Daumier's ridicule. He hated the vices of his time and country, but one feels that he had a large heart, and that it was grief rather than rage that was expressed in his laughter, while one cannot find that Gavarni had a heart at all—only a clear brain and a light hand. Technically, Gavarni is supple and adroit; Daumier is extraordinarily forcible and voracious. And Daumier was a true painter as well as a caricaturist, and had a fine sense of tone and of the use of oil colors.

Brentano's publishes a little book on 'Modern French Masters,' by Marie Van Vorst, the masters dealt with being Puvis de Chavannes, Cazin, Rodin, Besnard and Steinlen. The essays, reprinted from the *Pall Mall Magazine*, are written in a rather odd dialect of the writer's own, and it cannot be said that they give as much insight into the nature and methods of the artists considered as Mr. Alexander Harrison has managed to pack into the latter part of his brief and rather dithyrambic preface. But then, Mr. Harrison is a painter. On the whole, the best of the book is the fifty illustrations reproduced from the artists' more important works.

'A Handbook of Plant Form' (London: B. T. Batsford; New York: John Lane) consists mainly of a hundred plates of outline drawings, by Ernest E. Clark, of various common plants, intended for the use of ornamental designers when their own studies may chance to fail them. In general plan it resembles W. G. Paulsen Townsend's 'Plant and Floral Studies,' published by John Lane in 1901. On the whole, Mr. Clark's drawings seem to us the better executed, while there is little to choose in the matter of descriptions. Mr. Clark's introductory chapter on design is too brief and general to have much value. The two books supplement each other, and those who may have found the earlier one of use to them are likely to welcome the later.

'The Japanese Floral Calendar,' by Ernest W. Clement (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company), gives, in fifty-seven pages, many of them covered with good pictures, a vivid idea of the Japanese love of flowers and of nature in general. They are "worshippers of beauty rather than of the 'almighty dollar,'" and at the proper time the entire nation takes a day off to see the plum blossoms, or the maples, or the chrysanthemums, and other favorites. The author makes many apt quotations in prose and verse from the books of other writers on Japan to illustrate these floral pieties, thus producing a convenient and attractive summary of a fascinating subject to which others have devoted large and expensive volumes.

The Lincoln (Eng.) Public Library, at the end of nearly ten years of existence, has determined to lay open its special collection of works relating to the city and the county bearing the same name. The result is a small-quarto volume liberally spaced and printed, with classifications under seven heads, e. g., General Works, Works relating to Particular Subjects, to Towns, Villages, etc.; Works on General Subjects by

Local Authors, Biographies of Lincolnshire Men and Women; Maps, Engravings, Prints, etc. Though this is mostly unified in an index, we suspect the American method would have been to bring all under one alphabet, with authors, subject and class entries. The greatest Lincolnshire light is Sir Isaac Newton; but Fox of the 'Martyrs,' Grosseteste, Henry More the Platonist, the Mozleys, the Wesleys, and Christopher Wordsworth, illuminate the theological body. Tennyson is the poet by way of emigency, with Jean Ingelow for an humble fellow-craftsman. William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, was of Lincolnshire origin, and Sir John Franklin.

In the November number of the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* Dr. Wilhelm Erman, university librarian in Breslau, outlines a plan for uniform cataloguing and classification of the eleven Prussian libraries (the Royal Library in Berlin and ten university libraries) now engaged in the preparation of a union catalogue of their books. It is pointed out that the great expense of the undertaking cannot be very well justified as long as the catalogue exists only in the one manuscript copy in the Central Cataloguing Bureau in Berlin; that it would enhance the value of the work most decidedly if the titles were to be printed on cards of uniform size and distributed among the cooperating libraries, so that each library in course of time would possess a complete catalogue of all of them. Dr. Erman suggests also that the classification of the Royal Library be thoroughly revised and expanded, and the class-numbers printed on the cards, to serve as a basis for a reclassification of the other libraries; this would be of advantage, not only to the librarians, who are often transferred or promoted from one library to another, but also to scholars using the libraries in several cities. The importance, from a bibliographical point of view, of a printed catalogue of all the books in these libraries, especially as a basis for a complete bibliography of German literature, is also kept in view, although the writer emphasizes the fact that such a bibliography cannot be prepared in the Prussian libraries alone; the final coöperation of all the large libraries in German-speaking countries is aimed at.

Prof. Henrik Schück of Upsala, best known for his book on Shakspeare and his 'History of Swedish Literature' (still, unfortunately, a torso), has published from time to time volumes of "chips from his workshop" under the common title "From Old Papers." The latest (sixth) volume contains, among other sketches, an interpretation of the Book of Jonah, the literary form of which is shown to connect it with the fantastic fishermen's and travellers' tales collected by Lucian, while its spiritual significance is found in its being evidently directed, from a liberal and cosmopolitan point of view, against the conservative chauvinism of a Joel. Another study is entitled "Gallimatthias," and seeks to justify the old derivation for the word *galimatias*, "galli Matthias" (pro "gallus Matthiam"), which Littré repudiated in his dictionary. Still other topics are Hammurabi's Code, the recently discovered comedies of Menander, mediæval Paris (with notes on the life of François Villon), the "Gothic" school in Swedish literature, etc.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will found a new periodical, the *Garden Magazine*—"a 'gardener's reminder,' pointing out the things to be done during the month." It will be handsomely illustrated.

The chief interest of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for December lies in the memorials of the dead. Following a portrait plate showing two generations of the Hoar family, Senator Lodge pays a personal tribute to his late colleague in a paper read before the Massachusetts Historical Society, with a noticeable want of particularity in characterizing Senator Hoar's public activity. His skill as a presiding officer in a turbulent party convention is alone remembered for mention. Mr. E. K. Rand conveys a distinct impression of the promise of the late Joseph Trumbull Stickney, whose untimely end was noticed in these columns. A Japanese alumnus of 1883, Mr. C. Kikkawa, writes of Charles Sumner Griffin, a professor in the Tokio Imperial University, "struck down before the prime of a vigorous manhood," in the words of the Harvard Club of Japan.

Prof. John J. Stevenson of New York University discusses vigorously, in the current *Popular Science Monthly*, the status of American college professors. The evolution of the college on its material side has left them with no substantial increase of pay, and the changes on the educational side have deprived them largely of that "literary leisure" which used to serve in some degree as a compensation for smallness of pay. They are no longer in touch with the trustees, as of old, and their relation to these officials tends to sink into that of the ordinary employee. On the whole, the incentives to young men of real ability to adopt college teaching as a profession are becoming constantly less. Again, the meagre salaries offered tend to promote the appointment of men who are not obliged to depend wholly upon their salaries, and the personnel of the profession inevitably suffers as a result. As a corrective, Prof. Stevenson suggests a renunciation of the attempt to make "universities" of colleges, a return toward the policy of prescribed courses, and a better adjustment of the relations between the corporate boards and the faculties. The first two of these steps would eliminate a large number of elective courses, taken by but few students, and thus make possible a reduction in the number of teachers employed, with more adequate pay for those retained and more leisure for study. Boards of trustees, he thinks, should be brought in some way to realize the financial sacrifice at which the teaching force does its work, and, when large donations are received, should feel the propriety of using them not merely to relieve themselves of a part of the contributions which they are ordinarily required to make, but to give relief to the teaching force as well.

The University of Göttingen has, with the current semester, introduced an insurance system for its students, male and female, in medicine, dentistry, natural science, pharmacy, and agriculture, against accidents in the University buildings or during the lectures, practical exercises, etc., in any of the institutes connected with the University. The scheme includes even the journeys to and from the University, and excursions under direction of a member of the teaching corps. In case of permanent injury, the amount of insurance is 20,000 marks; for

temporary inability to work, after a certain number of days, 4 marks per day. The premium is 1 mark per semester for each of the insured. Göttingen is, we believe, the first university to adopt this innovation only recently initiated at several of the leading schools of technology. The University of Breslau has rapidly followed its example, and introduced compulsory insurance for all its students in the Natural Sciences, Medicine, and Dentistry, with a premium of 1.50 marks for each term.

—The first volume of William Dawson Johnston's 'History of the Library of Congress' has been published by that institution, and makes an interesting contribution to the story of library development in the United States. The beginnings of the collection were more adapted to the needs and wishes of Congress itself than to those of a national library, and to this day some of the restrictions imposed in the first years remain in force. Small appropriations, limited purchases, a narrow policy and imperfect agencies characterized the Library in the sixty years of its history told in this volume, and to these obstacles to growth were added three more or less destructive fires. Badly housed until 1853, managed more as a private than as a public library, and under supervision that remained indifferent to the necessities and the possibilities of the situation, the collections increased slowly and with little system. It is odd to read that Watterston, the librarian from 1815 to 1829, was regarded as the "only man of letters at the capital." In 1829 the Library fell into politics, and in the Jackson sweep Watterston was superseded by Meehan, of whom little good could be said at the time, and in whom little development occurred during his long service of more than thirty years. Of this abuse of the appointing power under Jackson Mr. Johnston records that it "did an incalculable injury" to the Library. Meehan was removed in 1861 for his supposed Southern sympathies.

—Opportunities to obtain good collections were permitted to pass with an indifference that now appears shocking. The Butarlin and Durazzo libraries were refused, as was the manuscript of Washington's Farewell Address. A selection only from the Priestley books was purchased, and the remains of Washington's library would have gone abroad but for the public spirit of certain citizens of Boston. Henry Stevens's Vermont collection was neglected. Even the purchase of Jefferson's library met with severe criticism, for contents as well as for price, although the few manuscript volumes of Virginia records obtained with it are now priceless. The idea of a national library answering to the British Museum was of slow growth, and did not prevail until long after the period covered by this volume; but it was early entertained and urged by men like Jewett, of the Smithsonian Institution, whose services, with those of Adams, Everett, and other members of the Library Committee, are worthy of remembrance. Jewett also foresaw the expediency of coöperative cataloguing, and planned a *Bibliographia Americana*, which failed of completion. Not until 1946 were copyright deposits made, and the practice under the law was very defective until 1867. The custom house long levied its barbarous duties upon books imported for the Library,

as it still does on photographs and music. This volume raises many points of interest in the early experiences of library economy in our country, and Mr. Johnston has performed his task with a fulness and orderly arrangement that leave little to be desired.

—The Massachusetts Historical Society issues a volume of letters selected from the papers of Major-General William Heath. The pompous style used in his memoirs is here laid aside, and, under the actual stress of routine in camp and campaign, "Our General" makes a very good impression. Entrusted with the command of the Highlands, he had great responsibilities, but those growing out of the reception and care of the convention troops at Boston were more delicate and exacting. It is quite certain that Congress took refuge in a quibble when seeking to repair the serious error committed by Gates, and broke faith, thus placing Heath in a position where all his abilities were called into action. The complaints of Burgoyne and the British officers were justifiable, and Heath sought to satisfy them, while, as the agent of the Congress, he was obliged to carry out its orders. The British would never admit that they were prisoners of war, and the terms of the convention bore out their contention. Much injustice and suffering was entailed by the measures taken by Congress to retain them as prisoners, and the correspondence in this volume, taken in connection with that printed by the late Charles Deane on the same subject, is very interesting matter. It is curious to read Heath's comment on Burgoyne's claim that coin or specie was worth three times the Continental bills of credit, which was indeed the fact. "But what an opinion must he have of the authority of these States to suppose that his money would be received at any higher rate than our own in public payments. Such payment would at once be depreciating our currency with a witness. I have repeatedly informed them that it is trifling to mention what some sordid individuals would give in the exchange of money, since they do it with great secrecy at their peril, and if detected would be most severely punished." The letters relating to Sullivan's expedition to Rhode Island in conjunction with the fleet of D'Estaing, and those on the unfortunate Penobscot venture, should also be mentioned. Heath remained in command at Boston until superseded by Gates in 1779, when he returned to the Highlands. The editing of this volume is notable for its excellence.

—The statute dealing with compulsory Greek for admission to Oxford by exempting it from scientific and mathematical students was "promulgated," discussed, and thrown out on November 29 by 200 non-placets against 164 placets. Many absentees, probably about 40, were paired, so that the total number of voters concerned was upwards of 400, four-fifths of the 500-odd possible voters in "Congregation," which consists of all M.A.'s in residence at Oxford and on the college books. About a year ago the supporters of the statute just thrown out carried the appointment of a committee to frame the measure by a vote of 164 placets to 162 non-placets. A couple of years earlier still, a resolution looking towards the framing of a statute providing

for a universal exemption from compulsory Greek was rejected in Congregation by 132 non-placets to 136 placets. Thus the "Greek question" has been before the University of Oxford and under more or less active discussion for four years or more, with the result of showing that there are ten members of Congregation who, being strongly opposed to making Greek optional for all, are inclined to favor exempting from it (to quote from the rejected statute) "candidates for the B.A. who offer themselves for the final Honor School of Mathematics or of Natural Science," while a majority of 36 are opposed to any sort of exemption from compulsory Greek for any candidate whatsoever.

—Supposing there had been a majority at Oxford in favor of the statute as "promulgated," especially if the majority had been small, the constitution of the University plainly called for an appeal to "Convocation," i. e., M.A.'s resident and non-resident, who number close upon 6,000. The imminence of this appeal and of further discussion before "Convocation," in case the statute had passed Congregation, goes far to account for the brevity of the recent discussion; but the chief and sufficient reason was given by the President of Magdalen College (T. H. Warren), who, in moving the adoption of the rejected statute, urged that the matter, though of very deep significance, was not new either to the House or to the country. It had been in two different forms fully discussed in Congregation before, and the chief arguments had been clearly stated in the various leaflets that had been flying about in great numbers. The constitution of Cambridge University knows no intermediate body like the Oxford Congregation, and hence their discussion, carried on for three days just after the Oxford vote, has been very much longer. Furthermore, the proposal before them is of a very sweeping character, exempting every one who may desire such exemption from the requirement of Greek. The Cambridge deliberations have ended, and the vote, corresponding more or less to that of the Oxford Convocation, will be taken there next February. In the interim the whole discussion is likely to be printed and distributed for the information of their voters, who are also not unlikely to receive various other printed appeals and arguments. It is noteworthy that the proposals under discussion at Cambridge are more adverse to the privileged position of Greek than the regulations now in force for Scotland, which were framed by a Royal Commission. That Commission, although it did away with compulsory Greek, nevertheless penalized the resort to alternatives for Greek in the "Bursary competition," where Greek receives double the marks of French or German, the permitted alternatives.

—Few men have so remarkable a career as the Austrian lieutenant field-marshal, Gustav Ratzenhofer, who died, in the sixty-second year of his age, on board the steamer Kaiser Wilhelm II. as he was returning from the United States, where he had been engaged in sociological researches. He was of humble birth, and began life as apprentice to a watchmaker, but on entering the army as a recruit he took a lively interest in military affairs, and passed rapidly through the lower grades of the service to the high rank of lieutenant field-marshal.

In 1871, while yet a young officer, he attracted attention by a prize essay on the "Technik der deutschen Armee," which was followed by other treatises on kindred subjects. Meanwhile he devoted himself with ardor to political, ethical, philosophical and sociological studies. As the result of ten years' researches, appeared in 1893 his "Wesen und Zweck der Politik," in three volumes (Leipzig: Brockhaus), in which he treats politics from a strictly scientific point of view as essentially a continuation of the struggle for existence in advanced stages of human culture, having for its end and aim the development of a higher civilization and the promotion of the general welfare of mankind. The same publishing house then issued in rapid succession "Die soziologische Erkenntnis," a solution of the problems of social life in accordance with the principles of positive philosophy, "Der Positive Monismus," "Positive Ethik," and "Die Kritik der Intellektualität." At the time of his decease he was preparing a work on "Positive Soziologie," which, although left unfinished, can be in a measure completed from the author's notes. Of the above-mentioned volumes, that on "Positive Ethik" is one of the most attractive and suggestive; especially interesting is the chapter on the workings of conscience in the several relations of life, its influence on the individual, the relation of the sexes, the family, the school, the laboring classes, as well as in economics, politics, science and art. Ratzenhofer is known as "the Herbert Spencer of Austria."

—On the 10th of November trains ran over the whole railway from Fusan to Seoul—that is, on the Japanese line traversing the whole breadth and the richest part of Korea. The road is expected to be in full working order in January, 1905. Meanwhile, what of "Northeast Korea and the War"? Under this heading, in the *Korea Review* for September, we have an illuminating article from the pen of Robert Grierson, M.D., who has lived some years in this region, now overrun by the Cossacks. Contrary to the general view, Dr. Grierson finds, instead of a bleak climate, sparse population, dense forests, and an uncultivated wilderness, with rude and primitive manners, a situation closely resembling that in other parts of the Korean peninsula. The coast rice plains and abundant sea food, hillside farming, and farmhouses of individual owners apart from villages, lend, besides the usual Korean, an American suggestion to the landscape. The roads are constantly alive with traffic from mine, coast, field, and town. The people, who have many relatives who are naturalized Russians, are pronouncedly pro-Russian. Their distance from the capital affords them security from grasping officials, while the Chino-Japanese war of 1894-'95 furnished many refugees from war-devastated areas. Tigers, numerous thirty years ago, are now scarce, "frightened away," the people say, "by the whistle of the coasting steamers." Habitations and food, largely oats, are the only things noticeably plain in contrast to better diet and lodging elsewhere. The Russian headquarters are at Sung-jin, and their forces are all cavalry, so as not to be cut off by Japanese landing in their rear. They have made good military roads all the way from Vladivostok, blasting out the worst places, and are in

telegraphic communication with their great seaport beyond the Tumen River. The bearing of these "nine points of the law," when peace is declared, is manifest. Nevertheless, the Japanese have already begun a railway to Wonsan. As simple fact, the permanent coast people from Saghalien to Fusan are Koreans.

ANOTHER VOLUME OF THE CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY.

The French Revolution. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1904.

This eighth volume of the great Modern History planned by Lord Acton comes out of its chronological order, following next upon the second volume, which dealt with the period of the Reformation. Its narrative covers about a quarter of a century, from the First Partition of Poland and the beginning of the embarrassments of the Crown in France (1775, 1776) to the establishment of Bonaparte as First Consul and the capture of Malta by the English fleet (1799, 1800). This is a short period compared with those which were included in the volumes that treated of the Renaissance and the Reformation. Yet no one will deem the 875 pages of the present volume too much for the matter they have to deal with. The French Revolution was a gigantic event; and both the causes that led to it and the phases through which it passed deserve the closest study. It gave rise to a series of wars by land and sea which taxed the energies of the great European States for more than twenty years. It produced enormous changes in Central and Southern Europe as well as in France itself. Here we have only the first half of the Revolutionary period, but that half, so far as France herself is concerned, demands a more minute treatment than almost any other part of modern history, so much controversy has raged round it, and so full of instruction is it to the philosophic student of politics. Ten chapters are given to the narrative of the Revolution, prefaced by four which describe the conditions antecedent and causative, out of which it arose; four chapters deal with the international politics of the time in Europe, five are chiefly devoted to the great war on land and at sea. The number of writers is slightly less than in the first and second volumes: here thirteen writers are found with twenty-five chapters—one, Mr. F. C. Montague, taking five chapters; another, Mr. Moreton MacDonald, four chapters. There are advantages in this, because it is less likely that any event of importance will drop out between two writers. This sometimes does happen, however, and must, upon the scheme of a work composed by many hands; or, conversely, it happens that the same event is described more than once, and perhaps in not quite the same way. An instance occurs in the account of Nelson's conduct at Naples in the summer of 1799, perhaps the least creditable part of his career. This episode appears in a chapter written by Mr. H. W. Wilson (chap. xx., p. 631) and also in a chapter by Mr. J. H. Rose (chap. xxi., p. 658).

Multiple authorship involves some loss of unity and comprehensiveness of view. The Revolution needs to be regarded as a whole, and so also does the general movement of

the monarchs of continental Europe to resist it. But as different parts of both stories belong to different contributors, the duty of presenting a comprehensive view does not devolve specially upon any single writer. We feel, accordingly, a certain want of the breadth of treatment needed. The details are carefully worked out, and many just observations on particular parts of the story, or on particular actors in it, may be found. But no presiding mind gives the reader a *coup d'œil* of the whole French position or of the whole European position.

When we come to consider the performances of the several writers, the usual difficulty of passing any general judgment on the work of so many pens recurs. On the whole, the volume strikes us as scarcely up to the level of volume I. or volume II. All the chapters are workmanlike, and most of them well written, though sometimes in a rather loose style approaching that of the newspapers. One does not expect to find the vulgarism "curio" (for curiosity) in a book of this type. The best are, in our opinion, chapter I., by Mr. Willert, containing a review of the intellectual conditions and influences which led up to the Revolution, and the last chapter (chapter xxv.), by Mr. Gooch, summarizing the results of the Revolution upon European opinion, together with M. Paul Viollet's chapter (xxiv.) entitled "French Law in the Age of the Revolution," and Mr. H. A. L. Fisher's account of Bonaparte's *coup d'état* (chapter xxii., Brumaire). Mr. J. H. Rose is generally clear and good in his account of military operations, though he sometimes disappoints us by passing too lightly over important points. For instance, he does much less than justice to Suvaroff's amazing Alpine campaign of 1799, perhaps the most instructive piece of mountain warfare on record. He is interesting on Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt and invasion of Syria, and seems to doubt, though his language wavers a little, whether the ambitious general really had any designs on India or on Constantinople, and whether the expedition was anything more than an effort to win fame for himself at a moment when he was not yet prepared to strike boldly for power in France.

M. Paul Viollet's chapter, already cited (which has been very well translated), is a model of what the concise treatment of a large and important subject should be. It is wonderfully lucid and exact, it selects the main branches of the subject for treatment; it is instructive in every line. One cannot summarize that which is already a condensed summary, but one may note a few of the most conspicuous points. It is shown how ripe France was for an amendment and for a codification of the law, so that the Revolutionary assemblies found a mass of suggestions and discussions awaiting them, with the opinion of thinkers as well as the sense of actual discontent prompting them to change. Every one desired reforms, every one hoped for a new and better world.

"The current opinion was that everything might be remodelled, public law, private law, constitution, and customs. Turgot forcibly summed up the revolutionary idea. 'There is no reason,' said he, 'for maintaining institutions founded without reason.' . . . For centuries the nation had been waiting for reforms; those long-standing grievances and sufferings which keep alive a people's need and desire for social regeneration had

been handed down from age to age. The philosophy and literature of the eighteenth century reflect this condition of men's minds and sum up these aspirations, which they at the same time developed and strengthened. At length, under their powerful influence, fermentation began, heads were turned, imaginations inflamed. The ideal philosophy, imagined by philosophers and men of letters, was to be realized here on earth; hatred and injustice, war and suffering, were to be banished from the world; justice, virtue, and peace were to reign among men, who thenceforth were to enjoy equal rights and less unequal fortunes, and live free beneath the ægis of the law. As to the means which were to regenerate society, a constitution, decrees, a declaration would suffice, since ignorance, forgetfulness, or contempt of the rights of man are the sole causes of the national ills" (*Preamble to the Declaration of Rights*.)

A whole generation trusted in this scheme and drank of this intoxicating draught, and there was joy, enthusiasm, and faith such as had never been known—an enthusiasm and a faith that spread throughout Europe. Only a few of the higher natures retained enough freedom of mind, enough self-control, to be able to judge this great effort of humanity. The famous Wilhelm von Humboldt, when yet a young man, had already said: "Constitutions cannot be grafted on mankind like buds on trees. Where time and nature do not come to his assistance, man can make no more lasting work than bind together a few flowers that the first sunbeams will wither. Let the legislator therefore," Humboldt continued, "avoid attaching himself to an ideal, to purely rational conceptions; let him be satisfied to steer the present toward the distant vision of perfection." This was a remarkable dictum to be delivered at that time by a German thinker. One wonders if William von Humboldt had read Edmund Burke. But, as M. Viollet observes, Humboldt underrated the power of the Revolution to produce lasting work, because he did not quite know how much of the work it was doing was prescribed by historical conditions—was, in fact, the outcome of a past which had made certain reforms inevitable. The Revolution merely accelerated those reforms, and that part of its work lasted, while the part which emanated from mere abstract theories and fancies withered quickly away.

This view is well illustrated by showing that already there was a strong desire all over France for unity in law, a desire to simplify the law of land and get rid of its vexatious incidents, a desire to establish religious liberty, a desire to make penal law more humane. The men of the Revolution carried through these changes more hastily and passionately than a regular government would have done, and they made some strange blunders, especially in dealing with the laws of land. But the time had come when the changes had to be effected, by whatsoever government. The chapter is full of curious facts regarding the way in which the legislators tried to get rid of what they called "feudalism," and of their experiments in the field of criminal law and procedure. They (unwisely) abolished, against the advice of Robespierre, the old rules which required certain kinds of evidence for the conviction of an accused person, leaving the jury to follow their impressions or conjectures. Following the precedent set by Joseph II. in Austria and by the Grand Duke Leopold of Tuscany, the Convention passed, in 1795, a resolution declaring that "the penalty of death will be

abolished throughout the French Republic from the day of the proclamation of peace." In this instance the Convention took the advice given to it by Robespierre (whom it had lately executed). He had proposed the abolition of capital punishment. "Listen to the voice of justice and reason," said this humanitarian, too little known in such a character; "it proclaims that human judgments are never certain enough to justify society in taking the life of a man condemned by other men subject to error." This great philanthropist was deprived of the consolation of taking part in the voting of the Convention on October 26, 1795. Not content with trying to abolish what they called "feudalism" and the death penalty, the Convention did very nearly abolish marriage, for it put illegitimate children, recognized by their father, upon the same footing as legitimate, and did actually abolish attorneys, suppress notaries, extinguish all schools of law! This excellent chapter ought to be read in connection with the useful summary of the contents of the *cahiers* of grievances brought up by the members of the States-General in 1789, which Mr. Montague gives in chapter v.

Chapter xxv. (by Mr. Gooch) presents a very careful and interesting account of the way in which the Revolution and its ideas were received in different countries of Europe, and the influence it exerted upon opinion in each of them. The subject is so large that we must not complain of the rather tantalizing brevity with which some of its aspects are treated; but Mr. Gooch may perhaps appear slightly to overrate the novelty of the revolutionary circle of ideas, and slightly to underrate the extent to which parts of Europe—not England only, but Germany, for instance, also—had been prepared for them. One may really say that revolutionary France did not invent anything; she merely tried to put in practice ideas and conceptions already in the air, to translate belief into fact. No doubt this was a momentous thing to do, and a new thing for the European Continent, though it had been already done in the United States and to a great extent in England. The remarkable feature of the movement is that no mind really original or creative in the sphere of ideas bore a part in the actual work of the Revolution from 1789 till 1799. The men who led in action were not thinkers; and there were no men living at the time who could be compared as thinkers to the writers (including men like Turgot) of the period from 1720 to 1780, whose thoughts had done so much to make the Revolution possible.

So far as vigor of presentation and power of style go, nothing in this volume is better than, perhaps nothing quite so good as, Mr. Fisher's chapter on the *coup d'état* of 18th Brumaire. The circumstances which Bonaparte found on his return from Egypt, the weakness of the Directory, the general discontent with the existing system, the desire for some drastic change, are clearly and concisely set forth, while the narrative of events is told with great spirit. That day marked the end of the Revolution so far as France herself was concerned, though it was less than half way through the career of the Revolution in Europe. Little more than ten years had passed since the fall of the Bastille on July 14, 1789, and already the country was thoroughly tired of the attempt she had made to carry out the prin-

ciples which were to diffuse universal happiness. "Men of every type," says Mr. Fisher, "concurred in Bonaparte's enterprise, aiding it either with secret prayers or overt act; soldiers from the army of the Rhine, soldiers from the Army of Italy, doctrinaires of the Institute who denied God, doctrinaires of royalism who affirmed the Tridentine decrees, peasants whose sole passion was for their plot of land, bourgeois who cared for little but a quiet life, bankers who craved for enlarged credit, diplomatists who wished to see amenity restored to public life, all who cared for peace, all who cared for social stability, all who cared for the glory of France. . . . In the Government of the Directors France had discovered neither virtue, intellect, nor wisdom." The young general had his opportunity. The next volume will tell how he used it.

THE SOUTH IN RETROSPECT.

Bits of Gossip. By Rebecca Harding Davis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

Bethany: A Story of the Old South. By Thomas E. Watson. D. Appleton & Co. 1904.

The South is decidedly to the fore in the literary output of the present season. The 'Recollections and Letters of Gen. Robert E. Lee,' the 'Lee and Longstreet,' Mrs. Pryor's 'Reminiscences of Peace and War,' 'A Belle of the Fifties,' Mr. M. D. Conway's 'Autobiography,' and Buell's 'Life of Andrew Jackson,' are now succeeded by the two minor biographical-historical works named above. Mrs. Davis's 'Gossip' is rightly designated. Its eight chapters are loosely run together, without strict chronological sequence and with few dates; and in what pertains to the North (where Mrs. Davis was educated and came to live during the civil war) there is much untrustworthy report. She puts witless words of profanation in the mouth of Sydney Howard Gay during the Frémont campaign, which no one who knew that fastidious gentleman, then managing editor of the *Tribune*, can credit, though Mrs. Davis says she heard them spoken (p. 175). She relates that John Brown, in the guise of a farmer, came into her West Virginia town (Wheeling or its vicinity) "in the spring [April] of 1859"; but if she had consulted Sanborn's *Life* she would have seen that Brown was at that season, on his return from his Missouri raid, in Michigan and Canada with his human booty, next in Western New York, Concord, and Boston. "But five months later," she continues, "when the old farmer died at Harper's Ferry, on that bright October day," etc.; thus confounding the date of his attack with that of his execution (in December). She would have us believe that in the spring Brown deposited with "our new neighbors" "a quantity of huge pikes and axes" "with which the slaves in town were to kill their masters whenever there should be an uprising."

"I remember," she goes on, "how we all laughed at the story. The children used to tease the old black aunts and uncles to show them how they meant to stab them with pikes or behead them with axes when the day came. We thought it a very good joke" (p. 184).

It is charitable to suppose that Mrs. Davis is the victim of her memory, and that if there was any joking on the subject

(apt to be of a grim sort in any slaveholding community) it postdated the first revelation of John Brown's pikes at Harper's Ferry. The whole story is rubbish, yet you are led to think the narrator actually saw the pikes and axes—the axes, by the way, a pure invention for Southern consumption.

There are some wholesome pictures of war as witnessed in a border State situated between the contending parties, but here, too, one encounters the imagination of the fiction writer. "There were," we are assured on page 123, "regiments on both sides which had been wholly recruited from the jails and penitentiaries." So far as this affects Confederate practice, Mrs. Davis may make her peace with her section; we will only remark that Mr. Watson, in his 'Bethany,' repudiates such a charge by implication, for he reproaches the "good Puritans who had said so much about the barbarity of Southern slave-drivers," with having released their felons "upon condition that they would join the army," as was proved by the capture of a bluecoat "wearing the ornament of a brand on the temple"—and this in the first months of the war! Did not Col. Claiborne Snead see the brand and hear the prisoner's explanation, and stuff Mr. Watson with the romance? Mr. Watson is a professional historian, but Mrs. Davis must envy him that touch about branding.

At page 171, this lady quotes, as if verbatim, a letter she received "one July morning in 1862" from "an abolition leader in Boston," not named and we venture to assert unnamable, asking her to help through the Confederate lines an eminent French man of science who "has come to this country to aid the slave in gaining his freedom." The letter may be read ironically, but no one not a lunatic could have written it seriously. That the abolitionists were little better than lunatics is clearly Mrs. Davis's opinion. She gives them a general character for eccentricity—all vegetarians, all users of quack medicines, all dispensing with cotton and sugar as slave-grown products, the men all bearded, etc.; "some of them gave up God himself because he had tolerated slavery." Some, who were tabooed in her town as suspected "emissaries of Garrison"—whatever that means—actually believed in "spiritualism, in divorce [shade of Milton!], and in woman's rights" (p. 184).

There is just one abolitionist, nominated for Vice-President on the first Liberty Party ticket, Francis J. Le Moine, a truly remarkable man, of whom Mrs. Davis has something worth while to tell us at first hand (pp. 166-169). The Blaines she also saw in their Pennsylvania home. Frémont she makes a hero of, not very intelligently. Among the Concord circle she speaks most warmly of Hawthorne. The most valuable portion of her 'Gossip' is her reminiscences of life in a Gulf State in her earliest childhood, and we shall not challenge her illustrations of the prevailing code of "honor" and vendetta. Major Delasco's wife had given a small supper, followed by a "carpet dance," and was denied the communion the next Sunday.

"Early on Monday morning the major sent a challenge to each of the elders and members of the session, eighteen in all. Most of the men whom he had challenged were his cronies, with whom he supped daily and

exchanged gossip, receipts for drinks, or the eggs of fancy poultry.

"I may die on the field," he said, "but I shall have vindicated Maria's honor, thank God!"

"This washing of reputations clean by blood was going on perpetually."

Mrs. Davis's literary art is apparent in some of her episodes, but it falls short of Mr. Watson's, which is far less conscious and more racy. His 'Bethany' may be curtly defined as *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, and the latter half is purposely given a romantic form, though it is as strictly historical as the first. The entire narrative is as absorbing as a novel, and has an irresistible movement and no little charm. It proceeds from a mind which sees vividly, describes freshly and powerfully and candidly, often humorously, often poetically, especially in the depiction of nature, and has a better title to literary fame than any of Mr. Watson's rival candidates for the Presidency at the late election. Its scene is Georgia till its hero passes to the seat of war in Virginia, and it embodies the author's recollections of his boyhood just before and during the civil war. It is not a stenographic report; it is not regardful of the unity of time at least—it projects Populist notions, for example, backwards into the ante-bellum period; it is just a broad, dramatic expression of Southern sentiment on the brink of war and in the midst of hostilities, and in this aspect is absolutely veracious. "Just as the facts were, I will relate them to you," our author says in a Whitmanesque strain at the opening; "just as conditions were in the South, before the war, I will describe them to you; just how we felt and acted during the cruel conflict between the States, I will try to make plain." "If there is any human creature that I do understand it is the Southern negro" (nigger is his preferred orthography); but give us rather Mr. Watson's portrayal of his own color. It is not new—there is not a lineament of the slaveholding and fire-eating class that is not familiar to any student of the anti-slavery conflict; but it is from a Southern hand, and let no one call it the hand of calumny.

For example, Mr. Watson is describing his grandfather's plantation (p. 17):

"By the way, I now recall that there was a bright mulatto boy on the place, named Sam, whose mother's color was a smooth, universal black, and whose son Sam bore a distinct likeness to my Uncle Ralph. I mention this as a singular coincidence, just as I might tell you of the two mulatto fiddlers at Charlottesville, Va., who bore such an impertinent and irrelevant resemblance to the Sage of Monticello."

Mr. Watson has written a striking biography of Jefferson, and thinks it no discredit to the father of American democracy to report his amours with the despised and servile race. Not so Lowell, when writing for the *National Anti-Slavery Standard* in the late forties: "He [Jefferson] was neither so thriftless nor so inhumane as to turn the Ishmaels he had begotten into the desert. . . . He . . . enriched his pocket . . . by his philoprogenitiveness." Uncle Ralph was equally removed with Jefferson from Mr. Watson's censure. He is the hero of the love story referred to above, and apparently it should and would not have shocked the lovely girl whom he sought to marry to meet the aforesaid Sam and recognize his paternity. But this is not all of the revelation of the Southern

mind. Mr. Watson treats us to a great blast against the iniquity of "miscegenation" and the tolerance by Northern abolitionists of a spontaneous, affectionate, legal union between whites and blacks according to natural affinity. Mr. Watson, we repeat, has some humor, but it breaks down here.

It breaks down again in the matter of our author's colored nurse (p. 15):

"Mandy, indeed, might be considered something of a curiosity, for the reason that she was virtuous. It was said among white men, as well as black, that no temptation could reach her. Whether she was constitutionally cold, or whether she acted from principle, I do not know: I simply record the fact that she was regarded and respected on the plantation as a strictly virtuous girl."

The testimony of white men is important, because, as we are told on page 238, "to throw around their women every possible protection, to guard the home against the slightest impurity, are purposes common to all Southern [white] men."

The nonchalance with which Mr. Watson penned the above extract is visible in his account of other Southern habits not yet extinct. In happy Bethany:

"In the grocery which stood on the flat called 'the slashes,' they could show you the spot where Dick Hattaway had cut the life out of Abe McDonald with a bowie-knife. There were places, also, where respectable citizens had shot at others equally respectable; but as there were several of these places and they were lacking in individuality, nobody cared particularly to see them."

In a fight at a political barbecue, with Toombs and Stephens for the chief orators, in which the lie is passed at the feast and a lay preacher engages the challenger of his veracity, one Thomson, the latter is tripped and thrown by an interloping third party, one Hood, who "immediately inserted his thumbs under Thomson's eyes, to gouge them out," and actually destroyed one. This is recalled and related by Mr. Watson as impassively as if he were snapping a kodak, along with a subsequent fight between three friends, all drunk, when "I saw Carter lay the blade to Bean's cheek, to his chin, to both sides of the neck," and the blood gush from the four wounds. He describes on page 80 a "gander-pulling" on his grandfather's grounds—the bird with greased neck and head hung to a high limb by its feet, while its tormentors rode circling about the tree at top speed, "each horseman taking a pull at the gander's head as he galloped past. The hero of the game," Mr. Watson adds coolly, "the winner of the stakes, was the fellow who finally pulled the gander's head off." The Quaker blood in his mother made her explain the performance to the boy "in a tone of disgust" as "just a gander-pulling." His beloved Uncle Ralph was an adept in it, as he was foremost in hard drinking, horseracing, and cock-fighting.

Space warns us to forbear. Mr. Watson's illuminating book is dedicated "to the magnanimous men of the North who are willing to learn the truth about the South." It marks the hereditary isolation of that section that he should be ignorant that he is carrying coals to Newcastle. Long before he was born, the South insisted on coming North with its oratory, its newspaper advertisements of runaway slaves, the backs of the slaves themselves, its revolvers and

bowie-knives, its menace of death to abolitionists, its rewards for their heads; nobody had to go South to learn all about the "peculiar institution." Mr. Watson gives unconscious confirmation of the very primer of abolition knowledge of the disposition, habits, standards, and tender mercies of the slaveholding section. It is valuable, but absolutely unnecessary. We have heard, too, all the arguments advanced by Mr. Watson himself or by his idol Toombs and his associates, in or out of liquor (as he shows them), on the subject of Northern aggression and the Southern right of secession. Still, we advise any one to read his 'Bethany' carefully from beginning to end.

RECENT FICTION.

The Custodian. By Archibald Eyre. Henry Holt & Co.

Off the Highway. By Alice Prescott Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Sea Wolf. By Jack London. Macmillan.

On Etna. By Norma Lorimer. Henry Holt & Co.

It is decidedly hard on Archibald Eyre and his illustrator, Penrhyn Stanlaws, that Anthony Hope and Charles Dana Gibson should have been before them in the field, so that the thought "as moonlight unto sunlight" inevitably occurs to us. But, even so, no one can deny that 'The Custodian' is a readable story, with several interesting characters. The improbability of the plot is forgotten in the excitement of the successive incidents, and it is only in the last few pages that a virtual impossibility shocks our common sense. Even though the reader is sharper-witted than the hero, and pierces the disguise of exchanged clothes by which the German brother and sister, runaways from the court of their royal father, deceive their young English custodian, yet we can enjoy the progress of events in spite of being in the secret. Two things, only are left uncomfortably hazy—first, whether the villain's father is or is not abetting his son's attempts to marry this escaped princess; and, secondly, why the hero's mother should have barred his succession to a dukedom out of sentimental respect for his dead father's wishes. Otherwise the story is as clear as daylight, and would to a nicety while away a railway journey.

'Off the Highway' is a remarkable book. The title is well chosen for the descriptions of Californian mountain life have in them the true atmosphere of the country. The following picture of early dawn is a good instance: "A tinkle of bells swept down to him from the road above. A six-horse team, hauling wood, was using the first daylight to make its way down the mountain. The bells on the leaders swung rhythmically on the level stretches, and jarred into splendid crashing discord on the curves." Furthermore, the characters are sharply drawn and individual. The tired surgeon, forcing himself to a complete rest; the splendid clergyman, with mind as lofty as his stature; the heroine, with her ready laughter and somewhat absurdly ready tears; even the minor figures—stand out in strong relief. The narrative and dialogue are good, often epigrammatic, though unfortunately interspersed with such verbal

affectations as the following: "She gestured that side of it away," "She palpitated before him with the hard, definite sunlight of a California summer sifting over, but she flowered in its barbaric glare"; or this sentence of mixed metaphors: "They are wonderful translucent days, hushed spaces, gentle-toned and wooing, that cradle the nerves and tempers frayed by the long reach of the wind-harried hours." One serious defect is the sense of anti-climax in all the crucial moments. Three times at least are we roused to a pitch of expectation, and three times we receive a stone instead of bread, till we exclaim, as the hero did, after the last of these tame explanations: "I thought it was so different. And this really has a ludicrous side." Still, the book will find many readers and will deserve them.

Whenever a new volume by Jack London comes out, we anticipate vigorous writing, brilliant descriptions, and a surfeit of horrors. The fulfilment was seldom as complete as in this instance, but it is the third item that compels our chief attention. Never has sickening brutality been more gloatingly described than in this story of life on a sealing schooner, under a captain of whom the hero says: "This man is a monster. He is without conscience. Nothing is sacred to him, nothing is too terrible for him to do." Whether this is a probable or even possible evolution for a Norwegian sailor-boy, is, of course, an open question. To most readers the man who strikes and tortures and kills as his daily occupation, while for his pastime he reads Herbert Spencer and Browning, or talks philosophy, will seem no less grotesquely fictitious than the Caliban to whom he is compared. Yet the conception is at least novel and powerful, and the breath of the sea is almost painfully perceptible throughout. Indeed, the book might have compelled admiration, if not belief or liking, but for two grave faults—first, a strained exaggeration, which makes the scenes of horror nauseating rather than thrilling, and the love-passages distressingly mawkish; and, secondly, a longwindedness, perhaps to be explained by the original serial form. In a volume of 366 pages we have only the following main incidents: the rescue from the sea, à la Kipling, of a man-writer and a woman-writer successively (their meeting being brought about as violently as in a game of "Consequences"); their life on and escape from the sealing schooner, their life on and rescue from a desert island, and the death by paralysis of the Sea-Wolf himself. All the rest is padding of the most tedious kind, with exasperating tricks of speech, such as "what of" for "what with." We are left regretting that Mr. London should ever have abandoned the short stories that he told so well. But perhaps the whole book is to be regarded as a parody, in which case 'Captain Outrageous' would be a more fitting title.

Norma Lorimer's 'On Etna' is another instance of vivid, in this case almost lurid, local color, spoiled by unconvincing characterization. All who have been in Sicily, and many who have not, will find this book conjure up for them visions of that wonderful landscape dominated by the grand snow-topped volcano. As far as descriptions and mere writing go, the author deserves all praise. When we analyze the plot and the psychological subtleties, our admiration de-

creases. The chivalrous Adonis of a brigand might, perhaps, but for his lapses into metaphysics, pass muster as a barely possible personage; but the English girl whom he captures, defends from an unworthy lover, and finally worships with a passion that is returned, taxes our credulity beyond its limits. Not only is she impossibly beautiful and fascinating, but the scene in which she visits the bandit in prison in order to whisper her love into his dying ears, is, with her antecedents, simply inconceivable. The writer is more successful with the less ambitious characters, especially the unappreciated English lover and the woman brigand Marietta. Apart from the descriptions of scenery, the main interest of the book lies in its information about the Mafia. Our sympathies are divided between the corrupt rule *de jure* of the Government, and the violent rule *de facto* of these so-called *Amici*, and such a topic would in itself make the book worth reading.

Historic Dress in America, 1607-1800. By Elisabeth McClellan. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. 1904.

The history of clothes in America can hardly be said to antedate those first years of the seventeenth century when the English began to settle in Virginia. The half-dozen pages of the present volume that deal with the still earlier Spanish settlements in Florida and California are rather a summary of the history and customs of the Spanish colonials than a contribution to the history of dress. But with the landing of the hundred colonists of the Virginia Company in 1607 our real record begins. We know from Capt. John Smith's book, published in 1624, just how many shirts and shoes and suits of clothes were thought by the London Company the necessary minimum for a Virginia emigrant; fifty-two gentlemen adventurers in that expedition naturally brought a more extravagant outfit, and with them the fashions of London were first introduced into America. Colonial dress among the richer colonists is, of course, merely English dress. Brocades and velvets were in those days a sort of investment, part of the family assets for decades, and it would have been poor economy to send to England for a coat of some cheaper fabric when a brocade would last twice as long and look twice as well. During the last half of the seventeenth century the General Court of Massachusetts passed countless orders restricting extravagances and dictating the length of sleeves or the height of boots, but one had only to prove that one was "passing rich" (two hundred pounds was counted a fortune that excused display) to disarm all criticism and even the law. The seventeenth-century Dutch settlers followed to some extent the fashions of their mother country. Miss McClellan devotes a short section to the dress of the Quakers, which has been handled once for all by Mrs. Gummere.

The eighteenth century is more interesting because our knowledge is more detailed. Moreover, the Colonies were now more prosperous; China and the Indies sent to American markets their rich and delicate silks and gauzes; and towards the end of the century, when intercourse with London was no longer easy or desirable, the fashions of France partly superseded those

of England. The colonists were of course at the mercy of the European shopkeepers who filled their orders. When Washington ordered clothes, his wife desired "One fashionable hat or bonnet," and so the order went. No wonder that, in 1760, he writes indignantly to his London agent that "I never had such a pennyworth before. . . . Instead of getting things good and fashionable in their several kinds, we often have articles sent us that could only have been used by our forefathers in the days of yore." The advertisements of the newspapers of the period are useful for the details of dress. Often a runaway slave or servant had to be traced by his clothes, or he had stolen his master's, which were minutely described. When green was the fashionable wear, a man named Davis robbed the church at Wilmington of its hangings and had a green coat made of them, whereupon a reward of ten pounds was offered for his arrest and the recovery of the coat.

One of the most interesting sections of Miss McClellan's work is that on American uniforms. The quotations from the army orders of the day throw light on the pathetic condition of the Continental army, which in 1775 "has unfortunately no uniforms," so that the officers are directed to wear cockades of different colors according to their rank. In 1776 the General "feels an unwillingness to recommend, much more to order, any kind of uniform, but as it is absolutely necessary that the men should have clothes, he earnestly encourages the use of Hunting Shirts." In 1780 the General begins to feel nervous about the appearance of his men before "our Allies, composed of the first troops of Europe," and begs his field officers "if possible to get their old clothes altered to one regimental fashion." In 1783 "the Commander-in-Chief recommends that the business of turning and repairing the coats of last year should now be considered as a primary object." That was in February, when the scarlet cloth expected from Europe had unhappily failed to arrive. One is relieved to read that in April "the regiments which have not turned and repaired their coats are to draw lots for the scarlet cloth which arrived yesterday."

The names of materials in constant use in those centuries are in many cases completely obsolete. Broadcloth has held its own and serge was worn, but what about the chilloes, betelles, deribands, and tapisels, which were as familiar to the shopper as are the chiffon and tweed and velveteen of to-day? The glossary at the end of the volume before us was a happy thought, but it must not be regarded as final authority. It may be that Piccadilly is so called from the "peccadilles," or bands trimmed with pointed lace, sold in a certain shop in that thoroughfare in the reign of Charles I. But that gauze harks back to Gaza, and dimity to Damietta, has not been proved.

In her long list of authorities consulted for this work the author does not mention Mrs. Alice Morse Earle's 'Two Centuries of Costume in America,' published and reviewed in our columns last year. Yet Mrs. Earle had ranged over the same field, and the same authorities are inevitably quoted in both books. It would not be fair to make a too close comparison of the two. Mrs. Earle has a gift for style and a fund of anecdote quite absent from the work of

Miss McClellan, and she seems to have had access to more Colonial relics, as one would expect from a writer who has devoted so much energy to the study of Colonial life. Miss McClellan's history is more in the nature of a reference book, a most useful collection of prints and evidence of all kinds. The colored plates and other drawings by Miss Steel are numerous and very attractive, and illustrate all possible phases of the fashions of the two centuries of Colonial life. There are many photographs of Colonial garments and household goods, and the volume, a small quarto, is admirably suited for a gift-book.

My Literary Life. By Mme. Edmond Adam (Juliette Lamber). D. Appleton & Co. 1904.

The first volume of Mme. Adam's autobiography, which appeared two years ago, closed with her marriage to M. Lamessine and her awakening to the fact that, by that marriage, she had made a mistake which seemed irreparable. The second volume takes the reader from the provincial life of Soissons and Chauny to Paris, where the Lamessines settled in an apartment in the Rue de Rivoli. It was in the Paris of the fifties, of the Second Empire, that Juliette Lamber (as she preferred to call herself), now became a person of some importance. Her literary career began with the publication of her defence of George Sand and Daniel Stern in her 'Idées Anti-Proudhoniennes.' Proudhon had showered insults on both these writers in his 'La Justice dans la Révolution,' and he was reckoned so terrible an adversary that no publisher would look at a manuscript in which he was attacked. Finally, it was published at the expense of its author, and her defence of their character won her the friendship of both George Sand and the Comtesse Agoult (Daniel Stern, the mistress of Liszt). But unfortunately these two distinguished women, after a devoted friendship, were themselves at daggers drawn. Juliette Lamber received an ambassador from George Sand to inform her that they could not meet until she had quarrelled with Daniel Stern. About ten years later, through some disagreement over a rival salon, Daniel Stern became estranged from Juliette Lamber, who was at once admitted to the intimate circle of George Sand.

Mme. Adam saw the début of Patti and of Bernhardt, and records the publication of the first number of the *Petit Journal*. She was a conspicuous figure in more than one political salon before she founded her own with the twenty men friends and five women prescribed by Daniel Stern as the correct proportion. The set of instructions that the latter gave to Juliette on how to make and keep up a salon are interesting, because they sum up the experience of a clever Frenchwoman whose salon was frequented by all the distinguished Republicans of the day. There Mme. Adam met Grévy, Carnot, Vacherot, Renan, Littré, Girardin, Scherer, and many other politicians and writers. She must have kept a voluminous diary; at any rate, she reproduces in the liveliest manner the conversations, personal peculiarities, jealousies, and weaknesses of the men and women who then led the opposition to the Empire. In the same salon were to be met not only the inveterate Republicans who would make no

compromise with the Empire, and admired Orsini, the would-be tyrannicide, and also the "oath-takers" as they were called, who split the Republican party, and revolted the men of 1848 by taking as their motto "The Empire with Liberty."

M. Lamessine drops so completely out of the life of Juliette Lamber that the readers of her autobiography hardly remember the fact that she still bore his name. When she asked for a separation on the ground of his neglect and infidelity, M. Lamessine replied: "I will never consent. You are the handsomest ornament of my house, and, if I should be in financial trouble, your people would help me, I am sure." When her first book proved a success, he informed her that he should take pleasure in signing his own name to the future editions: "The law authorizes me to appropriate to my own use all that is joint property. A wife's work belongs to her husband." Accordingly, he signed with his name the second edition. Mme. Adam remarks that there is even to-day no clause in French law that would prevent a French husband from doing likewise. M. Edmond Adam was one of Daniel Stern's friends. When the present volume closes, he was still no more than a friendly adviser—one of a small circle who made it their business to protect Juliette Lamber from her husband.

Mme. Adam's second book was 'Mon Village,' followed by 'Mon Voyage autour du Grand Pin,' written when a serious lung trouble exiled her from her beloved Paris to the Golfe Juan, where she made friends with Mérimée and Cousin the philosopher. There we leave her making a garden about the little house that she built near the sea. By this time M. Lamessine has somehow been disposed of, for her apartment in Paris, like her winter retreat in the south, is now shared by her father and mother, of whom every reader of the first volume must retain a lively recollection.

The translation of the second volume is no improvement on that of the first. It is slipshod and incoherent, with numerous mistakes in spelling. But Mme. Adam's narrative is so vivid, so spontaneous and amusing, that the treachery of her translator has done little to lessen its charm.

The Appreciation of Sculpture: A Handbook. By Russell Sturgis, A. M., Ph. D. New York: The Baker & Taylor Company. 1904. Pp. 235.

An attempt has here been made to help the general reader to appreciate the merits of works in sculpture from those of Greek antiquity to the present time. The task is a difficult one, because, as the author repeatedly remarks, it is often impossible to find words to express plastic qualities. The appreciation of sculpture, as of any other branch of the fine arts, demands a culture that can be acquired only by a habit of observation and critical comparison of works of art themselves. Books can be of use only in so far as they may stimulate observation and critical judgment. Mr. Sturgis has written with the commendable purpose of finding such merit as may exist in works of widely different character. His book is appreciative in the sense of finding something to praise in nearly every class of works noticed; but while he has apparently endeavored to dis-

criminate, and to make his appreciations just estimates, it appears to us that he errs somewhat on the side of too general praise. There is not only a wide difference, but in some cases a radically opposite character, manifested in the sculptures brought under consideration; and a catholicity which embraces things so opposed can hardly be entirely just.

The discussion of ancient Greek sculpture appears to us the most interesting part of the book, though it covers but forty pages, and in this narrow compass the question of the use of color in ancient sculpture is included. The superior character of the early mature art of Greece is recognized, but the period of finest production is said to extend from 479 to 350 B. C. It might be contracted, for before 350 Greek sculpture had lost its most excellent character, and had begun to manifest those qualities of over-elaboration and trivial naturalism which mark the decline of the art. Mr. Sturgis has recognized this change, and, in commenting on the realistic treatment of the drapery in the so-called Niobide of the Vatican Museum, he justly remarks that this gives the work no superiority. The more conventional rendering of drapery in the earlier works marks an appreciation of the proper limitations of sculpture which the later Greek workmen had lost sight of. We could wish that Mr. Sturgis had begun his consideration of Greek sculpture at an earlier stage of its evolution, following its development from the archaic conventions of immaturity, and observing how, through all the lack of knowledge and of technical skill, a strong sense of beautiful and effective composition is manifested, and pointing out how the essential principles of design embodied in the early work still form the basis of the consummate art of the Phidian age; and how the primitive conventions give place to those which are inseparable from any work in which the nature of materials and the monumental purpose of the sculptor's art are respected.

The treatment of mediæval sculpture is inadequate, and we have no doubt the author will agree with us in this. The more architectural purpose of the Gothic carver is recognized, and this is fundamental to a right appreciation of Gothic sculpture. But the really classic qualities which underlie all the peculiar conventions of the finest mediæval art, as well as the remarkable fineness of execution which the best of it exhibits, ought to be brought to the reader's attention. Nor is the discussion of the sculpture of the Renaissance as complete or as discriminating as we should desire, though it includes much that may be helpful to the reader unacquainted with the art of this brilliant epoch of artistic retrospection.

A large part of the book is devoted to modern sculpture in its manifold varieties, but just appreciation of contemporaneous works of art is not easy to reach or to formulate. Modern artists work under difficulties not always fully realized. The lack of common aims, common traditions, and monumental purpose, together with the wealth of knowledge of past achievements of many epochs and of many peoples; and the unprecedented dominance of the idea of likeness to nature as a primary motive—make the attainment of the highest excellence in sculpture, and just estimates of

the merits of contemporaneous productions, equally difficult.

The book is illustrated with 64 half-tone plates. These are excellent of their kind; but a great objection to the half-tone process is the fact that good impressions cannot be got on good paper. This highly calendered paper, of wood-pulp and filling, is offensive to the eye and weak in substance.

The Awakening of Japan. By Okakura Kakuzo. The Century Co. 1904.

The mantle of Mabuchi and Hirata has fallen upon Okakura, who was born four years after Townsend Harris's diplomacy made the Japanese a trading nation and lifted up the native merchant from the social mire. Against the flood of Western influences which, if unregulated by the dykes and sluices of fixed taste, would sweep away Japan's civilization, or at least disintegrate her ideals, Mr. Okakura, this true son of the Everlasting Great Japan, is a Protestant of intensest spirit. Considering that even the new Japan, which surprises the world by her power of adaptation and of offence, is but the natural outcome of her own inherent forces in religion, art, and tradition, he would keep the Occident at bay, compelling its gifts to be tributary to Japan's richer life, while challenging with a flaming sword whatever will work harm to the empire's noblest life.

Mr. Okakura has already written a bold and illuminating book on 'The Ideals of the East.' In this, his latest work, applying his theories more especially to Japan in retrospect and interpretation, we have the very marrow of his thought. His ruling ideas are easily recognized. Asia is, or at least was, a unity. The Vedic and the Confucian ideals became one in the weaving of the web which Buddhist missionaries slowly consummated in the loom of time. In the thirteenth century the outburst of the Mongols broke the unity of Asia, leaving a long legacy of mutual hatred and disorganization which made India and China the prey of Europeans. Japan, within its sheltering island walls, is the residuary legatee of all Asia, and more nobly than any other Asian nation has she held to the lofty ethics, ideals, and art of that continent whence all great faiths have issued. Even against the modern religious invasions, lust of conquest, and aggressive economic systems built on machinery and a state of society that must constantly win new markets even at the cannon's mouth, she can, if she will, hold her own. It is Asia and not Europe that has been, and still is, the inspiration of the real Japan, that was, and is, and is to come. The author need not tell us in the publisher's preface that he has had "information better than printed material and common hearsay" through "special acquaintance with surviving actors in the Restoration," for on every page he glorifies the past and gives us a picture painted in the iridescent colors of a sunset glow. His is an idealized painting in words of life in the Island Empire, and one which is about as accurate in detail and about as closely related to fact as is Sir Walter Scott's picture of the Middle Ages. In a word, it is an artist's representation. Mr. Okakura works with the brethren of the palette and brush, or at least with vital interest in art, as well as with eloquent pen

and the literary resources of the scholar. While the acknowledged champion of the conservative reaction in favor of old Japan, he is frank and generous in his recognition of the message which Christianity bears to woman.

In elaborating his thesis, which he does in a delightful little book, easily slipped in the pocket or held in one hand, he shows that "while Christendom struggled with medievalism, the Buddha land was a garden of culture." He pictures the night of Asia, when Islamic and fanatical Mogulism shattered the unity of Asian thought and life. Japan, though never conquered, was "buried alive for nearly 270 years." Under the titles, "The Chrysalis," and "Buddhism and Confucianism," we are shown how the duarchy grew up. The Mikado was gradually dehumanized by a ring of politicians, and evaporated into a god. While elevated to that point at which he was most potent as a mysterious idol in a box, he was most impotent as a ruler. The "old badger," Iyeyasu, had his own way by disintegrating society, separating the different classes, each with its own world of experience, thought, and expression; and this Yedo dictator so determined the course of religion that, according to the proverb of the discerning, "Even a sardine's head became an object of worship."

Masterly is the author's interpretation of the Voice from Within, showing how three schools of thought, dominant from the seventeenth to the nineteenth century, united in causing the regeneration of Japan. The School of Classical Chinese Learning, or the Higher Criticism of the Confucian texts, was in deadly opposition to the official orthodoxy of Yedo, and in its manifestation, often with noble motive and pretext, was the cause of technical insurrection and bloodshed, but always in the interest of the common people. The Oyomei School, which taught that knowledge apart from action, and philosophy without application in life, were worse than vanity, was the nursery in which the great leaders of 1868 and also the men of light and action of to-day were trained. But it was the Historical School that first pointed the goal which, along a path made clear by light brought from the younger nations, Japan has reached. Yet the advent of the West was not an unmixed blessing. The Japanese, eager to accept the new civilization, were regarded as renegades by their Asian neighbors. The Russians were the first to threaten Japan, and the coming of the American ships was a mighty shock. This was the White Disaster.

In the transition between the assassination of the Regent Ii, who signed the Harris treaty on his own responsibility, and the Restoration of 1868, there were many rapid changes, with the formation and decay of samurai parties, Federalists, Imperialists, and Unionists; and following upon these we are shown the commoner transformed into a samurai by the system of military service. In the reincarnation of his country, our patriot sees Japan accepting the new without sacrificing the old. It is the heart of old, not new, Japan that beats strongly beneath the arm that pulls the trigger of the modern rifle or the lips that speak into the battle-field telephone. In art, Japan stands alone against all the world. As to the Yellow Peril, it is but the nightmare of a guilty conscience that fears unknown evil while its greedy hands still clutch. The

very nature of Japanese civilization prohibits aggression and means peace. Mr. Okakura does not grapple with the problem of how the East and the West are to be made one in brotherhood and mutual respect. Perhaps he will essay this task in some future work.

A word of caution to the Japanophile and the man seeking the royal road to a knowledge of Japan. Here we have history written not as one knows, but as one feels it. It is impression and appreciation, rather than the work of the logical intellect. To not a few of the author's broad statements no scholar could give assent, while to talk of "the awakening of Japan" without ever mentioning the religious and non-religious forces of southern Europe, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, or the Dutchmen of Deshima, who for nearly three centuries poured a constantly fertilizing stream of influences upon the Japanese intellect, or even referring to the five thousand or so *Yatoi* or salaried assistants beginning with Verbeck and Pumpelly and continuing with Hearn and hundreds still at work in the land, seems not only absurd, but positively misleading. "Making an idol does not give it a soul," says Japan's own proverb.

Wall Street and the Country: A Study of Recent Financial Tendencies. By Charles A. Conant. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1904.

The essays contained in this volume have all appeared before as articles contributed to the periodical press, or in some other form, but have been rewritten for the purpose of the present publication. The result is an excellent handbook, dealing with "undigested securities," Trusts, the function of the exchanges, the economic progress of the nineteenth century, the standard of value in China, and the growth of trust companies. Mr. Conant is a member of the Commission appointed by the United States in 1903 to consider the question of securing stability of exchange between the currencies of gold-standard and silver-using countries. The first aim of our commission and that appointed by Mexico "has been to put China on the gold standard," and what Mr. Conant has to say on this difficult and important subject is well worth attention. To sum it up in a very few words: The problem is not to provide a gold currency for China (to do this would mean a draft on the world's resources of at least \$1,200,000,000 of gold—one-quarter of the existing world's stock), nor is it to establish an artificial equalization of gold and silver by "any of the methods pursued under the name of bimetalism." What is wanted is simply a gold standard, such as has been introduced in India, and this, it is thought, can be accomplished by limitations of coinage, by acceptance of the existing currency at gold par for public dues, and the maintenance of a gold reserve.

Mr. Conant combats with great force the common idea that the keeping of trust-company reserves on deposit in national banks, instead of in actual currency in their own vaults, tends "to rear a structure of credit too lofty for the slender foundation of currency at its base." His argument is, in brief, that the structure is more solid than that which rests on the cash reserves in the Bank of England.

"The joint-stock banks keep deposits

with the Bank of England, and the private and country banks keep deposits with the joint-stock banks. The system thus depends absolutely upon the solidity of a single institution—the Bank of England. The British system has the advantage of economy in the use of money, but the American system is more exacting in its safeguards."

The chapter on Trusts and that on the Exchanges are admirable specimens of sane and lucid writing. Mr. Conant is no believer in further State intervention; but what he has to say does not come from any doctrinaire theory of the relation of the State to industry. He treats the subject from the point of view of the investor and the consumer, and asks *cui bono?* Look over all the laws that have been passed to secure publicity of accounts and to restrain fraud and extortion, and then ask yourself, Have they made my barrel of flour cheaper? Did they prevent my investing

in Orange Peel common just before dividends stopped? Let us not forget, either, that the wonderful economic progress of the nineteenth century, which has diffused comfort and even luxury throughout the great body of the working population of the world in a manner hitherto undreamed of, was all the result of individual initiative, which has made every one of us a sharer in the "unearned increment" produced by discovery, by invention, by the application of accumulated and accumulating capital.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ancient Kalendars of the University of Oxford. Edited by Christopher Wordsworth. Henry Frowde.
Bourget, Paul. A Divorce. Scribners.
Browning's, Mrs. Selected Poems. Edited by Elizabeth Lee. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Desmond, Humphrey J. The Know-Nothing Party. Washington: New Century Press.
Everett, Charles. Nano. Neale Publishing Co. \$1.

Falkner, C. Litton. Illustrations of Irish History. Longmans. \$7.
Farish, Thomas Edwin. The Gold Hunters of California. Chicago: M. A. Donohue & Co.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. XV. Cambridge, Mass.
Irish Literature. Edited by Justin McCarthy. Vol. X. Philadelphia: John D. Morris & Co.
Living Church Annual, 1905. Milwaukee, Wis.: Young Churchman Co. 35 cents.
Marco Polo's Travels. Caxton Thin Paper. Imported by Scribners. \$1.25 net.
Merrill, George P. Rocks, Rock-Weathering and Soils. New ed. Macmillan Co. \$4.
Narratives of De Soto. Edited by Edward G. Bourne. 2 vols. A. S. Barnes & Co. \$1 net each.
O'Ferrall, Charles T. Forty Years of Active Service. Neale Publishing Co. \$2 net.
Reinach, S. The Story of Art throughout the Ages. Scribners.
Sharp, William. Literary Geography. Imported by Scribners. \$3.50 net.
Swift, Jonathan. The Journal of Stella. Caxton thin paper. Imported by Scribners. \$1.25 net.
Woodbury, Charles Levi. Genealogical Sketches of the Woodbury Family. Manchester, N. H.: J. B. Clarke Co.
Wood, Henry A. Wise. The Book of Symbols. W. J. Ritchie.
Wordsworth's Complete Poetical Works. Cambridge Edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3.
Yale Insurance Lectures. Vol. I. C. C. Hine's Sons Co. \$2.15.
Younghusband, Francis Edward. The Heart of the Continent. Imported by Scribners. \$2 net.

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Caldwell's Handbook of Plant Morphology

By OTIS W. CALDWELL, Illinois State Normal School, Charleston. 194 pages, \$1.00 net.

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